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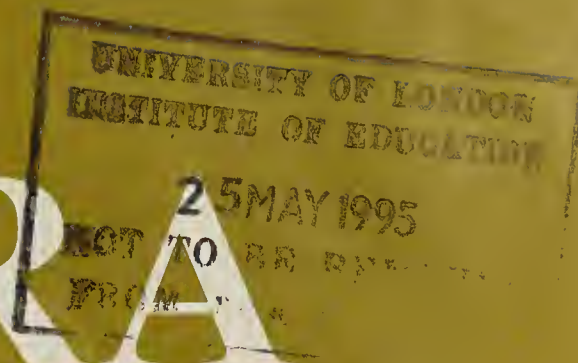
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NEW ERA IN EDUCATION



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25 MAY 1995

NOT TO BE REMOVED
FROM THE LIBRARY**EDITORIAL****Teachers: Education or Training?**

There is an increasing tendency in many countries today to focus on training of teachers, which can be in the form of competencies, checklists and/or learning on the shop floor, i.e. in the schools as opposed to institutes of higher education.

There has been some recognition of the different aspects of the work of teachers at various points. In India, for instance, the teacher is called a guru, who has all embracing knowledge and wisdom. The term training in Britain was replaced by teacher education, indicating a role for teachers that went beyond giving children knowledge. The responsibility of a teacher has thus varied from that of imparting knowledge from a set syllabus to that of overseeing the development of the student as a person.

Those educators that see education as a life long process are concerned at the supposedly narrow focus on practical skills. In order to analyse their concern, the reasons for the narrow focus and the possible consequences have to be examined.

An apparent lowering of standards, measured in different ways such as the level of literacy skills have been put down to a lack of direction in teaching, as a result of very liberal approaches undertaken by teachers. Many politicians and business people have laid the blame for ill-equipped recruits on an education system that

is concentrating on the all round development of children at the expense of skills directly related to the world of business and employment. There may well be some truth in that, except that the consequential limited and perhaps inflexible outlook of the students have to be thought about.

For many politicians who believe that a society best functions and progresses on the basis of inequality, it is only necessary for a small percentage of people to have the full education; for others, who will be putting policy into practice rather than developing it, practical training is the best use of finite resources. Such an approach does not go easily with the world heading into the twenty-first century on a platform of entitlement for every individual.

It has, however, been argued quite forcefully that having a literate world is the uppermost priority, and that is every person's entitlement. On that basis, are there resources available that would enable every teacher to have the type of education that would be time and resource consuming, and that would mean the rate of literacy will be slowed down?

There must be a way of achieving literacy for everyone and at the same time giving them education from teachers who have a sound and broad understanding and who see themselves as key players in the change process essential for a healthy world society.

Sneh Shah

WORLD EDUCATION FELLOWSHIP

1995

INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE TO MARK**THE 50TH ANNIVERSARY****OF THE UNITED NATIONS****EDUCATION AND THE RENEWAL OF HOPE: CHILDREN OF THE WORLD****JULY 10 - 15, 1995**

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Teacher Education or Teacher Training the English Experience

Norman Graves

Introduction

During the second half of the 1980s when I was responsible for the Postgraduate Certificate of Education (PGCE) course at the Institute of Education (University of London), I found myself at the receiving end of a large number of Government papers, circulars and ministerial statements, all of them attempting in some way or other to change the ethos of initial teacher education in England and Wales. Essentially, the ostensible purpose of the Government was to make the preparation of teachers for their first teaching appointments more effective on the grounds that many teachers had been failing to deliver pupils who were both literate and numerate and that too many pupils left schools at the age of 16 without any qualifications whatsoever. The argument put forward was that the deficiencies of schools was in large part due to the poor initial training that teachers received in the Departments or Schools of Education of the Universities, former Polytechnics and Colleges of Higher Education. There was, it was argued, too much emphasis on theory, too much philosophy, psychology and sociology of education, and not enough hard practical training on how to handle a class of pupils and on how to teach basic skills of reading, writing and calculation and basic knowledge (whatever that was). Hence the rallying cry launched at the 1993 Conservative Party conference by Prime Minister John Major "Back to basics".

All the documentation then coming from the Department of Education and Science (DES), later to become the Department for Education (DFE), referred to *teacher training* whereas it had been usual to refer to *teacher education*, on the grounds that the professional preparation of teachers involved more than the mere training in certain techniques of teaching. It seemed as though the Government and its advisers were thinking of returning to what had been an *apprenticeship model* of teacher training. What I would therefore like to do in this article is examine the background to these changes, indicate what has in fact happened and attempt an evaluation of how far the professional preparation of teachers has improved.

Background to Changes in Teacher Education

First one needs to bear in mind that the changes initiated in teacher education are part of a wider movement to reform the education system as a whole. The movement stems from attacks on the education system set up by the 1944 Education Act, by the "radical right". The "radical right's" attitude to education is represented by some of the original 'Black Papers', by the work of people like Stuart Sexton of the Institute of Economic Affairs, by Professor Roger Scruton (an academic philosopher) who wrote for the Hillgate Group and by various other people like Dr Sheila Lawlor who was Deputy Director of the Centre for Policy Studies. These people were attempting to undermine the power of Local Authorities in education, to create a competitive atmosphere among schools; they attacked what they saw as the sloppiness of progressive ideas in education with their emphasis on child centred education and the absence of rigour and of the direct instruction of what they deemed to be important subject matter. To a large extent their views were incorporated in the 1988 Education Act with its setting up of the *local financial management of schools*; *grant maintained schools* independent of local education authorities; *City Technology Colleges* and the *National Curriculum* (Chitty 1992). In the views of these people the whole ethos of the education system needed changing to something sharper, more business-like, not to say aggressive.

Changes in Teacher Education

The system of teacher education had gone through many changes since the end of World War II, but its basic structure stems from the McNair Report of 1944. This resulted in the setting up of Institutes of Education, based on universities, whose purpose was to oversee the professional training of teachers which at that time was split between Training Colleges (later renamed Colleges of Education) which prepared mainly primary and some secondary school teachers, and the Departments of Education of universities which trained teachers for secondary schools. The effect of the setting up of Institutes of Education (known

as Area Training Organizations or ATOs in official terminology) was to make the education of teachers in what were previously non-university institutions, subject to the academic control of universities. The aim was to raise the standard of teacher education generally and to develop research into education. There is little doubt that these aims were achieved if one accepts as evidence of this, the growth in the number of teachers who are graduates (most were certificated teachers in the 1950s and 1960s) and the growth in such post-experience courses as MA and PhD courses in education, as well as the development of research projects in the field of education in general and in curriculum in particular.

However, demographic downturn during the sixties and early seventies led to the need to rationalize the provision of teacher education. Thus many colleges of education were closed and others joined with local universities or polytechnics. In effect, the ATOs became redundant since very few independent colleges of education remained, and the professional accreditation of qualified teachers passed to interim professional committees in 1975, but ultimately the Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education or CATE was set up in 1984. CATE's function was to advise the Secretaries of State for Education and Science on the approval of initial-teacher-training courses in England and Wales (Taylor 1990).

The setting up of CATE marks a watershed in the history of teacher education in England and Wales, because in the first place it corresponded to the period when criticisms of teacher education (which had always existed) became more strident especially from without the profession, and in the second place because for the first time criteria were laid down that teacher education institutions had to comply with for their courses to be accredited. For example, in BEd courses it was stipulated that at least two years should be spent in the study of subject studies at a level appropriate to higher education; it was also required that adequate attention be given to the methodology of teaching special curriculum subjects and that primary education students should spend about 100 hours each in the study of the teaching of mathematics and language. Although CATE was reconstituted in 1990 with slightly different terms of reference and new criteria, including the stipulation that tutors in teacher education courses should renew

their experience of school teaching by having at least 35 days of school experience for each five years of service, it continued the task started in 1984 of accrediting new courses and vetting courses that had been running for some time. One of the requirements of being accredited was that CATE should receive a report from Her Majesty's Inspectors (HMI) of a thorough inspection of the courses concerned. This at first raised a furore in universities which had always prided themselves on not being subject to government control. In the event, in so far as these visits were sensitively carried out, they were the equivalent of management consultants visiting an industrial establishment and making recommendations for improvements; they could provide useful insights into the running of the courses concerned.

The continuing attempt to find more practical ways of training teachers was inextricably mixed up with the need to recruit more teachers in certain areas (Edwards, 1990). Thus the DES launched two experimental schemes known as the "Licensed

Teacher Scheme" and the "Articled Teacher Scheme" which aimed at recruiting mature persons who might transfer from other jobs (or more likely, had been made redundant), either to work under licence for a Local Education Authority (LEA) or to take up a PGCE course from a HE institution, though most of the

time would be spent in schools.

These experimental schemes have to a large extent been overtaken by subsequent developments. Those on the "radical right" were not satisfied with the efforts of CATE which they believed to have been dominated by what they called the "educational establishment" and particularly by those representing teacher education courses. It is true that Sir William Taylor, chairman of CATE, was a former director of the Institute of Education (University of London) and that some of the other members of the Council were from a teacher education background, but in my view, the vetting of courses was carried out with scrupulous fairness and no attempt was made to be soft on the institutions concerned. In fact as Taylor (1990) remarks; 'During the Council's first year, positive recommendations were made to the Secretary of State in respect of only half the courses reviewed'. But the critics were listened to by the then Secretary of State for Education, John Patten, who piloted through the House of Commons the Education Bill which abolished CATE and set up

" Essentially it is a clash between what might be called a technicist view of teacher training with a broader cultural view of the way teachers ought to be educated."

the new Teacher Training Agency(TTA). It is perhaps significant that when the Agency was set up under the Education Act 1994, the new Secretary Of State, Gillian Shepherd, appointed to it some notable critics of teacher education, such as Geoffrey Parker(formerly head of Manchester Grammar School, an independent school) who is chairman, Lady Cox , and Professor Anthony O'Hear. But the notable feature of the TTA is that it is responsible for funding teacher training, so that teacher education undertaken in universities is no longer funded for from the Higher Education Funding Council for England(HEFCE). Significantly, Gillian Shepherd in her letter to the chairman stressed the TTA would fund not only those teacher education schemes run by Higher Education institutions, but also School-Centred Initial Teacher Training(SCITT) run by the DFE(Shepherd 1994).

The Nature of the Issue and Evaluation

Whilst the driving force for change in teacher education has undoubtedly come from the "radical right", it is important to grasp what precisely the argument is about. Essentially it is a clash between what might be called a *technicist* view of teacher training with a broader cultural view of the way teachers ought to be educated. The argument is not a new one-it has been around for as long as there have been teachers to be trained or educated.

If one goes back sufficiently in the past, training as such was not deemed to be necessary. Until virtually the end of the 19th century, secondary school teachers were deemed to be sufficiently trained if they had a university degree in the subject they were to teach, and the requirement that they be trained did not become compulsory until the second half of the 20th century. In the case of elementary school teachers, at first an *apprenticeship* was all that was deemed necessary, though later Training Colleges were set up. This was largely because it was recognized that the pupil-teachers or apprentice-teachers had a very limited knowledge of the subjects they were to teach. Thus at first, whether for secondary or primary(elementary) teaching, "training" was essentially getting the teachers to know and understand the matter they were going to teach. But soon enough it became clear that knowing one's subject and being able to teach it were two different things. Divisions then began to appear between those who felt that acquiring the skill of teaching something ,was a matter of experience over time in the classroom, and those who felt though experience was a vital

part of learning those skills, it was desirable that students should be put through a course which would examine the nature of the skills and the principles behind them. Gradually it began to be accepted that *methods of teaching* courses had an important part to play in the training of teachers, as well as teaching practice. The courses in university departments of education went further and developed courses in the philosophy, psychology and sociology of education, later to be taken up by the colleges of education, on the rational grounds that an educated teacher should understand the philosophical basis for the aims of education, the psychological explanations of how pupils learned something, and the way in which society to some extent determined people's attitudes and behaviour.

It is in respect to those courses, in what came to be known as the *Foundations of Education* courses, that much controversy developed, as those who took an essentially instrumental view of the purpose of training, felt that their relevance to the task of teaching a class say, mathematics, was to say the least marginal. But the "radical right" went further and accused those who taught such courses, especially those teaching the sociology of education, of indoctrinating teachers with notions about the relationship between education and society that were Marxian, and/or revolutionary and in any case pernicious. Hence the sometimes violent criticisms that the "radical right" hurled at teacher educators, and their determination to see the system of teacher education dismantled.

As in all accusations of this nature, they tend to take extreme cases and then generalize, so that the impression is given that all sociologists of education are aiming at undermining the foundations of society through their teaching. If one examines one of the influential texts in this area that was edited in the early 1970s (Young, 1971), one may find it heavy-going and one may disagree with some of its propositions, but it is an academic book, not a polemical tract. A further point is that by the time criticisms of education courses became vociferous they were no longer in existence. Most teacher education institutions carried out yearly evaluations on their courses, in which students and staff made their views felt. As a consequence these courses evolved from year to year. Sometimes minor modifications were made, sometimes major changes occurred(Naish, 1990). Thus if I may quote from my own experience at the largest teacher education institution in England and Wales, whilst it is true that in the 1960s the *Foundations of Education* courses loomed large in the total offering

of the PGCE course as it was then, by the mid-1970s this aspect of the total course had been considerably reduced to an examination of *Current Educational Problems* in the light of philosophical and sociological analysis. The offerings of psychology had largely been incorporated into teaching methods courses in so far as this discipline could illuminate the problems of learning, for example, scientific or mathematical concepts and skills. Thus the idea that sociological, psychological or philosophical theory dominated these initial teacher education courses was an illusion.

For many institutions the requirements of CATE presented no problems at all since their courses conformed to the criteria. How far the CATE, and now the TTA, criteria were an incentive for recalcitrant institutions is a moot point; some would say such criteria and the sanctions behind them (non-accreditation) were a useful tool, though for many the sheer bureaucracy involved in providing documentation was a diversion from their main task.

But the question still remains: how far should teacher training be essentially an apprenticeship in which the student is introduced into existing practices in schools and classrooms, or should it include as well a somewhat wider purview of the educational scene in its intellectual and social context? In other words should one be concerned essential with *training* or should one be concerned with the *education* of teachers? It is quite clear that the DFE has for a number of years now opted to stress **training** though to the best of my knowledge it has never made explicit why it has done so. To many of us, this is a short-sighted view of way teachers ought to be prepared for their professional roles. We recognize, for example, that in a 36 week course that is the PGCE, the bulk of the time should

be spent by the student in acquiring the skills of managing a class and of teaching whatever subject he or she is required to teach. But we would argue that a teacher who has no overview of the education system in which his or her school is embedded, who understands little about the nature of educational aims, who knows little of the way children learn beyond what he or she has picked up on school practice, is a teacher with a limited professionalism which does not augur well for the future of education.

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Sustainable Developme

Educational Improvement Using Deming's Profound Knowledge

Julie E. Horine and C.E. Lindgren

Introduction

As the 21st century draws inevitably closer, educators are faced with the challenges of a post-industrial society and public demands for skilled graduates who can improve both national and international economic competitiveness. Public demand for educational reform, from grammar school through the university level, however, has not resulted in a systematic redesign of the educational system (see *A Nation at Risk*, 1983). Evidence suggests that merely reforming the current model of schooling is not sufficient to create more efficient and effective systems of instruction and learning. What appears to be needed is a systematic transformation of the current educational model.

A New Philosophy for Managing Education

To address the challenges of educational transformation, an increasing number of educators are applying the principles of quality management theorists such as the late W. Edwards Deming to the educational enterprise (Horine et. al., 1993a, 1993b). The American Council of Education (1993) finds that 70% of U.S. colleges and universities (post 12th grade) now use Total Quality Management techniques. This phenomena is not limited to the United States but is taking hold in all corners of the world.

Introduced in Japan in the early 1950s, the quality management philosophy is finding acceptance in Europe and North America as well as in countries as the People's Republic of China (Krygier, 1993). In many cases, government, industry, and private foundations are serving as catalysts in the deployment of quality management concepts such as continuous improvement and process quality to education. In Mexico, the state government of Nuevo Leon is leading the country in expanding its state quality award (patterned after the United States Malcolm Baldrige National Quality Award) to educational entities. According to Nancy Westrup, Quality Award Coordinator, "Mexico's schools are in desperate need of improvement. With the North American Free Trade Agreement, we have a need to compete and develop a high standard of education quality." In Australia, the

Commonwealth Government recently introduced an annual Quality Assurance Audit Program to encourage universities to focus on sound quality systems. Australian universities may receive as much as 5% of their operating grant in untied funds if they achieve the highest band in the audit (Cornesky, 1994). In Brazil, a private, non-profit foundation, Christiano Ottoni, is working with the state secretary of education in Minas Gerais to modernize the management of educational institutions through Total Quality Control (Da Silveira, 1994). Quality improvement in Brazil's schools is critical, according to the Christiano Ottoni Foundation, because only 2.5% of students who begin school complete the eighth grade after the normal eight years without being retained.

Many American schools are using management concepts to improve student learning. An urban inner-city highschool in New York, for example, involved students in the use of quality concepts and tools to reduce class cutting by 39.9% in a six-week period and reduce student failure rate (from 151 students failing every class to 11) within a five-month period (Schargel, 1993). Approximately 500 students at an Elementary School in Louisiana are participating in a homework improvement system as a result of a brainstorming session where students identified reasons for not completing homework. A school system in Virginia uses improvement teams to focus on projects such as reducing the number of fourth-grade students requiring math remediation (Horine et.al., 1993a).

Administrators and teachers adopting quality management practices believe principles, such as those espoused by Dr. Deming, provide the conceptual framework necessary for transforming schools and achieving continuous quality improvement. Deming (1986) advocates a management structure for school systems where success or failure is not based on test scores, but rather by a system where students feel secure without fear of reprisal or intimidation. Within this system, concepts such as merit, staff appraisal, ranking of classes or schools are discarded in favor of cooperation and acceptance. Ideas, understanding, and creativity flow readily in an

environment where people are encouraged to express opinions and speak freely.

Transformation not Reformation

Transforming education is a long-term endeavor, requiring a major change in the existing management system. This transformation, according to Deming (1986) is not a job of reconstruction or revision but rather "a whole new structure, from foundation upward." Since Deming's seminal work *Out of the Crisis* was published many books and articles have been written regarding the impact of Deming's philosophy on organizational management. These publications have given considerable attention to Deming's philosophy and his "14 Points" for management (figure 1). Deming's 14 principles represent powerful axioms that are based on the assumption that workers want to do their best (McGregor, 1960) and that it is management's job to constantly improve the system to enable them to do so.

Profound Knowledge

Deming's 14 points are based upon his system of profound knowledge which was first introduced at a meeting of the Institute of Management Sciences in Osaka as the Foundation for Management of Quality in the Western World. "Profound," according to Deming, "because it's so rare" (British Deming Association, 1992). The system of profound knowledge can provide teachers and administrators, from all countries, with the knowledge necessary to manage educational systems. Deming (1991) states that "[h]ard work and best efforts, put forth without guidance of profound knowledge, leads to ruin in the world that we are in today. There is no substitute for knowledge."

Profound knowledge is comprised of four interrelated components: appreciation for a system, knowledge of the theory of variation, theory of knowledge and psychology (Deming, 1990). These four components are highly interactive and cannot be separated. The components interact with each other to provide a structural foundation for Deming's 14 points. Management, in schools or businesses, needs to understand the interrelationships between these components in order to manage a system optimally. Deming (1991) suggests that the 14 points of management in industry and education "follow naturally as application of the system of profound knowledge for transformation from the prevailing style of

Western management to one of optimization." This optimization, in business terms, is capable of increasing productivity, quality, profits and price flexibility while decreasing unit cost and rework.

Systems Thinking

In 1950, Deming introduced a concept that stressed the importance of interrelationships instead of traditional linear cause and effect. This concept was recently popularized by Peter Senge (1990) as "systems thinking." Systems thinking is based on the assumption that all elements within a system are interconnected and therefore interact as a whole. Education as a system requires a major paradigm shift for most teachers and administrators. According to Horine et. al. (1993c):

A system perspective is necessary to integrate the many excellent, but isolated, educational initiatives underway today such as site-based management, shared decision making, whole language, and collaborative learning. Without a system perspective, educational initiatives remain isolated events that suboptimize the school system by promoting separate goals rather than the goals of the system.

Education as a System

Organizations, such as schools, may be viewed as a system. According to Deming (1991), "A system is a series of functions or activities (subprocesses, stages -- hereafter components) within an organization that work together for the aim of the organization." Deming further states, "[t]he performance of any component is to be judged in terms of its contribution to the aim of the system, not for its individual production or profit, nor for any other competitive measure. Some components may operate at a loss to themselves, for optimization of the whole system, including the components that take a loss." In an education context, public schools, private schools, colleges, universities, and trade schools should all work together within a common system.

In a technical sense, there are three classes of systems: the closed systems "which do not exchange matter with their surrounds, but may still exchange energy and information. . . flow systems which exchange matter, energy and information . . . but the matter enters and leaves only in well defined streams [and] open systems which exchange matter, energy and information in a diffuse manner. . ." (Tribus, 1992). Using these classifications, Tribus suggests that Deming is concerned with the "insider's view" or an

interpretation which emphasizes internal interaction, the process, and the information exchange from within the system.

Knowledge of Systems

Deming was not the first to emphasize the "insider's view" regarding systems. In 1887, Wellington, in his book *The Art of Railroad Location*, presented an interrelated view of the railroad and its relation to town growth, river and forest proximity, and grade steepness. During World War II, Operations Research professionals began looking at operational parts of the military as systems in order to optimize effectiveness and avoid suboptimization. Hall, in his book *A Methodology for Systems Engineering*, synthesized much of the research conducted in the field of Operations Research and helped pioneer the perspective of bringing the insider view to the design of systems (Tribus, 1992). Hall's (1962) work provided the foundation for many social scientists to extend system ideas to social systems.

Bertalanffy (1969) in a study of ecological systems, identified factors that enabled living systems to function. Bertalanffy envisioned an organization (in biological terms) as a living organism. The latter concept, referred to as "general systems theory," stresses the interconnectiveness of components. Within general systems theory, Bertalanffy developed the distinction between open and closed systems -- systems which were interactive internally and externally as opposed to a closed system perception that an organization is predetermined and stable and functions in isolation from its environment.

Building upon systems principles, Deming (1986) suggested that all systems (i.e., education) share similar characteristics: input (what comes into the system), resources (the system's human, financial and physical resources), processes (sequences of stages of work that changes inputs to outputs), output (the products of the system), and finally the purpose (general goal of the system -- why the system exists). Deming introduced the concept of the organization viewed as a system to the Japanese in 1950. Deming's concept was later adapted to education by Langford (1990), Moen (1991), and Horine et. al. (1993c) in an effort to help educators identify subsystems and internal and external customer chains.

The Student as Customer

The student is a primary customer of the educational system and receives enhanced knowledge and skills as a "service" or "product."

According to Holt (1993), educators improve the product by attending to the "process -- by taking account of students' responses to new programs, of society's changing demands on students, and of our deepening professional understanding of education as the development of mind and character."

Some educators mistake the student for the product. Tribus (1993), however, states that the student serves as a customer who is actively engaged in the process of acquiring knowledge. After having participated in the learning process, the student leaves the educational system to participate in the world of business, military, government, etc.

Purpose and the System

Deming (1986) contends that many of today's organizations, such as schools, lack constancy of purpose. Purpose is an essential element in defining a system (Schmoker & Wilson, 1993). In a school environment, the administration is responsible for encouraging teachers and students to adopt a long-term commitment to quality (Horine et. al., 1993c). Quality education is defined by Langford (1990) as "the continuous improvement of systems to enable the optimum state of personal, social, physical, and intellectual development of each individual which will result in society and colleague loyalty now and in the future." Striving to achieve quality goals, teachers and administrators are beginning to use cause-and-effect diagrams, flowcharts, and Pareto charts in an attempt to monitor and improve overall quality (Horine, 1992-1993). In the overall scheme of things, Mr. Lee Kuan Yew, ex-Prime Minister of Singapore states, "Countries will have to compete to progress" (Hutchins, 1992). Quality management is viewed as critical to such national progress.

Administration is also essential for the guidance and vision of the system -- senior leadership is responsible for creating and communicating the purpose or aim of the system. Vision addresses the long-term question--what are we striving for? "Without an aim," says Deming "there is no system. The aim is a value judgement" (British Deming Association, 1992). The aim of the system must always be understandable and clear to all participating in the system.

In any system, such as education, purpose is always driven by customer requirements and needs (Juran & Gryna, 1988). Therefore, it is the responsibility of management (administrators) to define present and future customer needs. The admini-

stration is also responsible for developing methods to measure whether customer needs are being met.

The student is one of the primary customers of the educational system. However, there are a myriad of internal and external customers of the educational system that include: parents, teachers, tax payers, businesses, and government. With such a diverse group of customers, it is important that all individuals and groups within the system work together. According to Bonser (1992) "we are all embedded in a network of supplier-customer relationships. In some cases these relationships are with other individuals in our own unit, but often these networks stretch out to members of other units." In an optimal or quality system, compromise and cooperation are the norm.

Leadership

The leadership within the system must work closely with all groups to achieve the goals of the system. "The components of a system are necessary but not sufficient of themselves to accomplish the aim. They must be managed" states Deming (1990). "The aim of leadership," says Deming (1986), "should be to improve the performance of man and machine, to improve quality, increase output, and simultaneously to bring pride of workmanship to people . . . the leader also has responsibility to improve the system -- i.e., to make it possible on a continuing basis, for everyone to do a better job with greater satisfaction."

What constitutes good leadership? According to Deming (British Deming Association, 1990, 1992) a leader of profound knowledge understands the system, optimizes all components of the system, creates enthusiasm, strives for improvement, does not judge, is constantly learning, creates trust, changes the system to implement improvements, strives for co-operation (not competition), takes risks, and understands a stable system. Most educational systems, however, do not presently possess the curriculum, insight, or desire to produce "students of profound knowledge" (Scherkenbach, 1991). There is, consequently, an urgent need for new learning experiences to nurture the international leaders of tomorrow.

An Optimal School System

An optimal school system is one that enables everyone to benefit including students, teachers, parents, business, community and ultimately the

international marketplace. It recognizes differences between students as well as differences between teachers. Such a system, says Deming (1991) is one "in which pupils from toddlers on up take joy in learning, free from fear of grades and gold stars, and in which teachers take joy in their work, free from fear of ranking." A school system, says Deming, should release the power of intrinsic motivation, self-esteem, and joy of learning and eliminate the destructive forces of extrinsic motivators such as performance testing (that rank students), merit systems, grading, and management by objective. The administration and teachers should always strive for a "win-win" (cooperation) situation as "win-loss" concepts always produce suboptimization in the management system. Kohn (1986) reinforces this assumption by stating that in any "win-lose" situation, there is always potential for psychological destruction within a relationship or structure. Therefore the terms "healthy competition" or "competitive spirit" are

"A school system, says Deming, should release the power of intrinsic motivation, self-esteem, and joy of learning."

contradictions in terms. In each case there are victims, loss of trust, instinctual reversion to self-preservation, and resistance to change (Moen, 1991). In a "win-win" situation negative suboptimization simply does not exist. To achieve "win-win"

situations, all improvement efforts or initiatives must take into account the subsequent impact on the entire organization or system (Horine et. al., 1993c). Therefore, educational systems need to encourage curiosity, intrinsic motivation, and eliminate competition. Glasser (1986) suggests that if business has rediscovered the concept -- the more that employees have power over their future, the harder and more creatively they work -- it is time that education also makes this discovery.

The student, as an individual, must be recognized within the system and allowed to "do well" in spite of the system (Deming Study Group, 1991, 1992). The Deming Study Group states that in a balanced educational system, there is synergy between the student and teacher --through which the student, teacher and system grows. In other words, it is a system of purpose where the "desire for and the skills necessary for continuous learning -- joy in learning" grows constantly (Moen, 1991).

Cooperation Eliminates Suboptimization

Cooperative environments foster optimal learning -- through sharing, joy, and creativity. In providing a conducive setting, teachers and

administrators should, through in-service training, parent-teacher meetings, and faculty groups implement programs such as team teaching, networking between teachers, classes, and schools, mentor training, small study groups, curriculum responsive to individual differences, and student cooperative learning. In reference to cooperative learning, students should be introduced to positive interdependence, the division of labor and rewards, the division of resources, face-to-face interaction and interpersonal skills.

Within an optimal school system, the variation in students and teachers is understood and compensated for within the total system. Each person in the school system, should be evaluated "in terms of . . . [his/her] contribution to the aim of the system, not for individual production or profit . . ." (British Deming Association, 1992). Differences such as interests, goals, or personality should be understood and reinforced for the betterment and optimization of the system. Ultimately, continuous improvement of the education system requires the involvement of all customer groups, including students, teachers, parents and community entities.

The Future

By utilizing Deming's Profound Knowledge, which stresses constancy of purpose, pursuit of learning, optimal performance, and continuous improvement schools of the future will benefit from "less errors and nonproductive activity, less

need to repeat lessons and less failure, increased quality, increased productivity, decreased cost, increased public support, increased satisfaction with learning, more joy in work, and more successful graduates" (NEA, 1992).

Deming's philosophy promotes the development of school cultures that are significantly more humane, void of departmental barriers -- where teachers, counselors, administrators and support personnel work together as a team to achieve the aim of the system.

Tomorrow holds many challenges and rewards for those school systems that have the courage and vision to move from Taylor's scientific management paradigm to Deming's quality management philosophy. Deming's system of profound knowledge provides educators with the conceptual framework necessary for transforming education and preparing students with the skills critical for success in the international workplace of the 21st century.

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Figure 1

DEMING'S 14 POINTS

1. Create constancy of purpose
2. Adopt the new philosophy
3. Cease dependency on mass inspection
4. End the practice of awarding on price tag only
5. Improve constantly . . . the system of production and service
6. Institute training
7. Institute leadership
8. Drive out fear
9. Break down barriers between staff areas
10. Eliminate slogans, exhortations, and targets for the workforce
11. Eliminate numerical quotas
12. Remove barriers to pride of workmanship
13. Institute a vigorous program of education and retraining
14. Take action to accomplish the transformation

Source: Deming, W.E. (1982, rev. 1986). *Out of the Crisis*..

Teaching Reading: Learning From Each Other

Robin Campbell

The teaching and learning of reading is a fundamental aspect of education. In modern society the ability to read reflectively is a prerequisite to being able to cope with the complexities of twentieth century living and for skilled employment opportunities. Indeed the Kingman Report (1988) suggested that 'the working of a democracy depends on the discriminating use of language on the part of all its people' (p7). That need, for advanced levels of reading, is recognized globally and is reflected in such organizations as the International Reading Association and the many national reading associations worldwide. Such organizations facilitate the learning from each other on aspects of the teaching of reading. And, interestingly, that learning from each other is also part of a major view about the process of learning to read in the classroom.

In the Classroom

The view of reading as a socio-psycholinguistic activity (Teale and Sulzby, 1989) is important because it serves to remind us that not only is

reading (and writing) a language skill requiring cognitive involvement from the child but there is also a social element. That social element can be interpreted in a number of ways. However, in the classroom it is frequently used to emphasise the social interactions that occur between the adult/teacher who knows about reading and the child who is learning about reading and to read (e.g.Meek,1982). Of course, in some forms of paired reading those social interactions are student/student where both the able and less able reader can benefit from the interaction (Campbell,1995).

The concept of reading together where the child as a learner is supported by the teacher is reflected in a number of literacy activities which occur in the primary classroom (Campbell, 1990). The most obvious example of that are the story readings that are provided by the teacher in the classroom. The teacher reading from a story book to the whole class is a continuation from the parents reading to their own children which will be a feature in many homes. And that interaction contains the key factors needed, Smith (1978) argued, to encourage

reading development, namely the child, the book and the teacher. But, the role of the teacher is important not only to read the book with careful attention to intonation, pitch and with appropriate pausing but also to respond to the children's comments, to provide links between the text and the children's own experiences and to question in order to support the learning. In such circumstances the children can learn new vocabulary, meanings and discourse patterns as well as developing a view of story structure and an understanding of their cultural heritage.

Story readings are regarded as being highly supportive to children's development as readers (Teale, 1984) and many of the positive features were noted in the previous paragraph. Indeed, although recent reading debates have tended to emphasize differences in approaches, nevertheless, a feature of agreement is the facilitative effects of story reading. As we would expect the whole language approach has stories as a basis for a good deal of the learning that takes place (Goodman, 1986). However, more skilled based approaches also recognize the importance of story reading: 'It is not just reading to children that makes the difference, it is enjoying the books with them and reflecting on their form and content. ... and it is showing the children that we value and enjoy reading and that we hope they will too' (Adams, 1990, p87).

The story readings in the classroom can on occasions be developed into shared book experiences with big books (Holdaway, 1979). Those readings of the stories where all the children can see the print that is being read extends the learning. In particular, for young children with less experience of reading and writing, the shared book experience provides an opportunity for the teacher to model the reading process and to demonstrate the link between the squiggles on the page and the words read. It also is a time when the children can join in the reading aloud alongside the teacher - especially where the rhyme or repetition of the story encourages an involvement. That involvement by the children helps them to see themselves as readers and the less advanced children can learn from others in the group as they echo the words that are read.

As well as working with the whole class, or groups within the class, the teacher will also from time-to-time read with individuals (Waterland, 1988). Those shared readings where the teacher might model the reading first for the child and then subsequently encourage the child to read the book

provides a social interaction centred on a book where the child can learn directly from the teacher about reading. Those shared reading also provide an opportunity for the teacher to learn about the child's developing strengths as a reader. That is especially the case where the teacher has a working knowledge of miscue analysis (Goodman, Watson and Burke, 1987; Campbell, 1993) which enables the teacher to determine the language cues systems that are being used by the child during the oral reading.

Some form of Sustained Silent Reading (SSR) where all the children have a short time when they know they can read without interruption is another literacy activity where the book, the child and the teacher predominate. Often teachers will read alongside the children, or engage in other reading activities, in order to provide a role model of reading. The SSR, therefore, becomes a social occasion where reading is the central focus of everyone in the room. At the end of that reading time the teacher might briefly share with the children a short passage from their book or tell about an aspect of the story. Those comments are often the stimulus for some children to tell about the books that they are reading and therefore each child begins to learn about many books from the others in the class.

Songs and nursery rhymes might be an important element in many early years classrooms. In brief moments the teacher and the children can sing or recite a song or rhyme. (And in some classrooms those songs and rhymes can be written on to big charts and be used as part of the shared book experiences which we noted earlier). The regular involvement in such an activity would appear to have beneficial effects on the children's understanding of the phonological elements of language. In particular as Goswami and Bryant (1990) noted the onset and rime elements of words may be learnt through such activity. And that learning will be helpful not only for reading but also as a support for children's spellings when writing.

Of course, the teacher will organize for other literacy activities. In particular many opportunities for writing will support also the children's development in reading. Nevertheless, those activities which have been described can form a central focus for a good deal of early reading learning. And that learning is one which has a strong social aspect as the children learn from others and in particular the teacher. Underpinning that learning, for many writers, is the concept of the 'zone of proximal development' (Vygotsky, 1978)

which suggests that that which learners can achieve today with support, as part of a social interaction, can be attempted later alone.

Around the world

The learning from others in the classroom is extended to the wider world where the sharing of knowledge about the teaching and learning of reading is quite substantial. Earlier, for instance, we noted how the shared book experience, with a big book, provided an opportunity for the teacher to share his/her knowledge with the children, and in some circumstances for the children to learn from each other. That shared book experience appears to have had its genesis in Australia and New Zealand (Holdaway, 1979). However, the merits of that literacy activity have been recognized widely and that practice has become commonplace in North America and the UK. Furthermore the teachers have found support from the publishers who now include many big books among their publications; and the extent of those publications indicates the popularity of the activity among teachers of young children.

More recently in South Africa (READ, 1993) the shared book experience has been adopted as part of a major initiative to develop the reading among 'black South African children' (p2). And the shared book experience lends itself well to the 'rich cultural heritage of storytelling' especially where the teachers are encouraged to produce many of the big books from the experiences of the children. Story readings are another part of the READ initiative and such story readings are recognized world-wide as being an important vehicle for encouraging children's reading development. Furthermore, there is research evidence which supports the view that story reading provides many literacy lessons as well as enjoyment for the listeners (e.g. Wells, 1986).

The Reading Recovery programme which is proving to be so popular, although not inexpensive and therefore open to change because of that expense, also was developed in New Zealand (Clay, 1985). And like shared book experience it has spread widely and in particular appears to have been adopted readily in the USA. Reading Recovery, although based on one-to-one teacher child interactions outside of the classroom, does link well with other classroom developments. It has two key features which link with those mainstream ideas. First, there is the emphasis upon the social

interactions between teacher and child and, second, there is the emphasis upon stories as an important feature of the learning.

The influences across the world have not all been concentrated upon a single language. The work of Ferreiro and Teberosky (1983) among the Spanish speaking populations of Mexico and Argentina has had a profound effect upon the teaching or reading practices. Their Piagetian research of literacy development among young children has emphasized the active and constructive role of the child in the process of learning to read and write, that research also suggests that literacy is learnt in social settings. The work of Ferreiro and Teberosky added weight to the notions of emergent literacy (Hall, 1987), rather than reading readiness, and created an emphasis upon using environmental print to support children's learning. It also emphasised invented spellings, which encourages the children to use their phonemic awareness, as part of the process of writing. All of those ideas are written about widely now in the English speaking countries.

So far, of course, I have tended to suggest that the connections are made within the academic and professional press as major innovative ideas are

passed from nation to nation and continent to continent. However, some of the connections are made more at grass root levels (or should that be chalk face levels?). In a recent brief article Bente Hagtvet, from Norway,

and Joanne Nurss, from the USA (Hagtvet and Nurss, 1994) demonstrated how the growth of ideas can be developed at the personal level of cross-cultural research. Nevertheless, their research, which considered the development of phonemic awareness during play activities and 'pretend' reading and writing, links well with some of the major research studies such as those of Emilia Ferreiro and Ana Teberosky which we noted above.

Conclusion

In one sense we can feel very encouraged by the evidence, some of which has been presented in this article, which suggests that educators are learning from one another across the globe in order to develop as teachers of reading (and writing). Ironically, if any barriers exist it may be across disciplines rather than at national boundaries. Educators and psychologists, for instance, both have an interest in children as developing readers. Yet, very often each of those groups use different literature citations, publish in different journals,

"Story readings are regarded as being highly supportive to children's development as readers."

attend different conferences and come to different conclusions often about how to support children's learning. (I have been using the literature of Educators in the construction of this article). Educators and psychologists need to share ideas in the way that teachers across the world have been doing in order to support the literacy learning of children.

But the encouraging signs which suggest that story reading, shared book experience, shared reading, silent reading, writing, literacy based play activities and songs or nursery rhymes to encourage phonemic awareness are being developed world-wide indicates that we can learn from each other, just as the children are learning in school from their peers and their teachers.

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DEFINING THE LEARNERS & THEIR EDUCATION

The University of Hertfordshire is organising a residential conference over the week-end of 21-23 July 1995. There is call for papers and other Presentation for this conference. It is anticipated that some of the conference material will be included in the August 1995.... Contact the Editor, Sneh Shah for further details.

AT THE GRASS ROOTS

The Editor is anxious to hear from Schools and other educationally related institutions and organisations about good practice. If you have anything (however small) that you or your organisation are proud of and would like to share with others, please contact the Editor.

Interactive Educational Concept

Koraljka Demel and Miroslav Zadro

Introduction

In today's troubled society, we are seeking new motives to achieve progress: the need to communicate could be the most powerful motive to achieve this. Since human beings are constantly socially interacting, these contacts could be used as educative, or at least informative, provided an adequate level of social awareness has been reached. This is an attainable goal, if all members of a society are promoting and consciously participating in the ongoing interactive educational process.

In this paper we will focus on five important social aspects and relations affecting the interactive educational process. We will also explain how the interactive educational process could be organized around the existing schooling system using Croatian system as an example. It is also possible to apply this to the University System.

Five Important Aspects and Relations of Interactive Educational Process

Since we consider interactive educational process a moving force towards a new society, we are trying to define which aspects of an existing society and which relations in an existing society are influencing this process. We have found that five aspects and relations are of the utmost importance: - social environment qualities - relation between individual and collective - generation interaction - choice and decision making - responsibility taking.

By analyzing certain interactive educational process through these aspects, we can define the ideal situation for it to flourish and develop. We can also find out which conditions are inhibiting the interactive educational process and how to avoid them.

The interactive educational process is possible between two or more individuals, as well as between a group or more groups and one or more individuals, or between two or more groups, a group being at least two persons linked with at least one same interest.

Five Important Social Aspects and Relations. Social Environment Qualities

The importance of the social environment qualities is the greatest at a very early age or for a

disabled state of body or mind, because these are the most vulnerable positions, with highly limited possibilities for change of the social environment. These are also the most dependent conditions, with almost no independence at all. The disabled conditions give very little chance to adapt to a situation, which means that great importance should be paid to a friendly social environment. In the interactive educational process, friendly social environment is of the utmost importance, providing possibilities for a free interchange of ideas, knowledge, experience and feelings.

Relation Between Individual and Collective

The harmony of individual wishes and collective interest seems to be the key to happy individuals and a healthy society. However, it is very difficult to define the actual limit of individual freedom, since almost all personal decisions are related to other peoples' lives as well. There is a very important relation between age and individual and collective interests: for the youngest and the oldest, individual interest overwhelms the collective, while grown up healthy people must establish harmony between individual and collective interest, and very often even prefer the collective to their personal, individual interest. The interactive educational process aims at establishing tolerance and interest for the community development through individual and collective efforts.

Generation Interaction

Generation interaction is a valuable source of different energies interchange. Older people could gain new impetus from younger people, sharing the same time their experience with them. If we could all learn to accept different needs of different generations, we could create different age groups interactions as a basis for integrating and promoting the interactive educational process. The interactive educational process would thus become the linking activity of the whole society, making it a free and creative one.

Choice and Decision Making

The possibility to choose and make a decision is highly age determined: the more dependable a person, the smaller the choice he or she has. We

should all learn to create a social environment that provides dependable individuals, such as children and disabled people, with friendly conditions, encouraging them to choose and make decisions for themselves whenever it is possible. The interactive educational process is based on the concept of choosing and decision making, thus provoking the ability to accept different choices and different decisions by different individuals.

Responsibility Taking

Being highly dependable on age, the amount of personal responsibility grows as we grow up and gets smaller as we get older. The collective, social responsibility grows with the higher level of knowledge we gain. It is our duty to learn to accept this responsibility for the society, even to assure that there is a limited scale on which people who refuse to take responsibility can act. The interactive educational process naturally introduces the concept of responsibility, by making very clear the link between choosing, acting and decision making. We find the ability of predicting and accepting the consequences of a choice made to be the most important characteristics of a socially responsible person.

Interactive Educational Process Applied to Croatian Schooling System

Preschool Level

The usual first interactive educational process takes place in a family like environment, as the simplest social structure. Members of a certain family like environment form the first interactive educational circle for a newborn child. In Croatia, there are kindergartens, both public and private. There are also institutions known as little schools, which in a one year period aimed at preparing the child for primary school.

Social environment qualities

For a newborn child, familiarity of social environment is of great importance. A family-like environment still proves to be the best, because it enables a child to gain knowledge about female and male vision of things. As we have already shown, friendly social environment is of great importance at such an early age, because it is the first social structure a child has to accept. If the first impression is positive, a child is encouraged to explore a wider, higher social structure.

Relation Between Collective and Individual

It is extremely important to introduce a step-by-step concept of interaction and communication, but also to learn to accept the necessary limits of individual social liberty, as a guaranty for the collective social benefit. It is important to learn the way to

exchange value for value, to give but to expect to get, and this is what a child deserves as well.

Generation Interaction

At this early age, generation interaction helps building a "picture of the world" of a child, enriching child's experience. Through this interaction, a child learns the customs (to avoid the term "rules") of human relationships and exchanges of feelings with other human beings. We find it important for the successful interactive educational process to function, that children should learn how to assert their individual ideas regardless of current existing patterns of behaviour.

Choice and Decision Making

Children have to learn to accept that every choice made has consequences they will have to accept. It is possible to learn how to predict consequences of a certain choice in many cases, so the pattern of imagining the consequences in advance can help us in making the choice.

Responsibility Taking

Children certainly have spheres where they themselves take the responsibility, like in contact with other children when playing. Even at such an early age, children should learn to take responsibility in limited areas of their actions. The important thing is the social concept of responsibility-taking, which has to be accepted if we are to adopt and become aware of the interactive educational process.

Conclusion

By applying the interactive educational concept to these already existing institutions, all generations of a certain neighbourhood would be organized around this educational institution in different ways: primary-school children could take children from the neighbourhood to and from kindergartens, high-school children could take them to a park or circus, grown-up people could organize parties or excursions... By integrating the whole neighbourhood around the youngest children, older children would learn to accept social responsibility, older people would be cheered up by the children's freshness.

Primary School Level

In Croatian school system primary school consists of 8 grades and it is obligatory for everybody. There are also primary schools for the disabled children. Children usually begin primary school education at the age of 6 (7), and regularly finish at the age of 14 (15).

Social Environment Qualities

Primary school social environment is where children first try patterns of behaviour learned in a

family like environment, and how to apply or adapt them to a new situation. Social environment of the primary school children should give them a possibility to choose, according to their interest, with whom they want to collaborate. The interactive educational concept is based on the possibility to choose the area of communication.

Relation of Individual and Collective

The idea of collective interest should be clearer at this age, because the primary school social environment promotes the idea of groups of children of the same age and interest. As the social structure children learn to accept gets wider, the harmony of individual and collective interest is more likely to be established.

Generation Interaction

Children are at primary school age almost completely absorbed in the social interactions with individuals of the same age, but the relation with teachers is something we find equally important. For the successful interactive educational process to happen at this age it is very important to redefine the term of authority. We find that children should learn that more authority means more knowledge and social responsibility. We must avoid the concept of complete obedience, because it inhibits the creativity of the interactive educational process.

Choice and Decision Making

The amount of activities based on a child's personal choice should increase as the child grows up. It is important to introduce the concept of group decision-making. Children at this age can already balance their decisions according to some more complex future plans of theirs', predicting the consequences well in advance.

Responsibility Taking

At this age children can not only learn to accept the responsibility for their decisions but they learn how to react to certain consequences. They also learn to distinguish the areas of personal responsibility from the areas of collective interest. It is important to accept the concept of acting as a complete individual by consciously limiting one's personal freedom for the sake of collective benefit.

Conclusion

At the primary school educational level, the interactive educational process takes place in a village-like society. Children learn the concepts of social interaction in their own neighbourhoods, becoming aware of the higher, wider social structures. Children should already be aware of the interactive educational process as the linking force of the society. Grown-ups would be constantly promoting the idea of lifelong education as a key to a peaceful, creative society. If everybody were

aware of the interactive educational process, it would be easy to organize the neighbourhood as an interchange of ideas, knowledge and interests.

High-school level

Secondary education in Croatia is currently undergoing some important changes, but basically it is a 3 or 4 year schooling, enabling children for work or for university.

Social Environment Qualities

At this age (14,15), children are able to change a given social environment. At this age children are usually the most rebellious group in a certain community: they have all the wishes and capabilities as the grown-ups, but they are given far less freedom to decide. Their energy could be a moving force in a society open for change.

The Relation of Individual and Collective

The individual interest seems to be overpowering the collective benefit at the high-school age: it is the result of wrongly defined individual and collective interests. At this age, young people could be the most active members of the interactive educational process, creating new links and relationships in a society. Since they usually commute to a different neighbourhood when they go to high-school, they could connect two neighbourhoods in a higher social structure, thus making more people members of the same interactive educational process.

Generation Interaction

At this age human beings usually have all the abilities of the grown-up members of a society, but have less social responsibility. This enables high-school students to be the connective force of younger and older generation, making it possible for kindergarten children to meet retired people. This generation is the creative force of a society, since it is still free of accepted lifelong patterns of the grownups. This ability to change is something we should all try to keep.

Choice and Decision Making

High-school children demand complete freedom to choose and decide. If they were brought up aware of the interactive educational process, knowing that they are part of it, they would be able to understand how each personal, individual decision affects the society. As the amount of knowledge grows, the process of choosing and decision making gets more complex. But years of experience rehearsing this process and being aware of it could make it more simple.

Responsibility Taking

High-school level is the right time for young people to initiate some concepts of their own,

enriching the society by creating something and taking full responsibility for it. There are certainly projects this young people could lead better than the grownups, burdened with the existing patterns of their everyday life. At this age, young people could be the most agile promoters of the interactive educational process, connecting different generations on the same projects.

Conclusion

With the existing high-school system, many projects connecting all generations could be organized, with high-school children as promoters of the idea. Thus, lifelong education would be the central issue in the lives of people, making us more content and creative, with less energy for destructive conflicts. Around high-schools an urban society, consisting of different neighbourhoods in the city, could be organized as an interactive educational circle. By contacting with other interactive educational circles, the wider social structure would be created, with richer possibilities for social interaction.

University Level

In Croatia, there are three universities: in Zagreb, Split and in Osijek. There are different studies and not all of them are represented at each University. The Zagreb University has the most faculties. Depending on a chosen faculty, it takes 3, 4, or 5 years to get a degree.

Social Environment Quality

The social environment of a university should surpass the environment it is situated in, connecting people from different parts of the world, interested in the same field. Although many universities have contacts with other universities from different countries, it is usually strictly professionally defined, while it could help connect people from different cultural background on the same projects, thus creating a new social environment.

Relation of Individual and Collective

The university social environment enables people to pursue their individual studies and explorations in a limited number of subjects. University students, future professionals, should be well aware that more knowledge means more social, collective awareness and responsibility. If knowledge gained for individual interest could serve to public benefit, than the role of highly educated people could be fulfilled.

Generation Interaction

At university level the generation difference is of minor importance, compared to preschool or

primary school period. However, generation interaction at university level might be welcome in comparison of different energies and sensibilities.

Choice and Decision Making

When becoming of (usual) age for entering a university, freedom to choose seems enormous, as well as the possibilities that are suddenly offered. There is a tendency towards losing the direction, while trying all the new things out. A well learned pattern of accepting the consequences of a choice made is what is needed. We must never lose the most important idea of the whole educational process, which is to communicate and create.

Responsibility Taking

Becoming a member of a society with a university degree means taking more responsibility than other people, even defining and limiting areas where irresponsible people can harmlessly act. Accepting the idea that there will always be people who will not be able to respond for their actions means taking more responsibility on ourselves.

Conclusion

Since university level is the highest institutionalized education it is at that level for the global interactive educational process to take place. By connecting different universities around the same projects, a global social structure based on the interactive educational process can be established. By far the most important first step in that direction is accepting the idea of the interactive educational process as a movement towards a better society.

Final Conclusion

We find that connecting different cultures and societies is the only way to live in a peaceful society. By accepting and overcoming cultural differences we could create new and imaginative human connections. New social structures could overcome the existing destructive conflicts of the war-troubled global society.

The interactive educational process could be the linking force towards a society developing in peace. The interactive educational process is constantly happening in human contacts: the first step should lead towards making people aware of this process and of its importance for human beings. If human beings were consciously accepting the importance of the interactive educational process, the society would have a powerful linking motive: the lifelong education through interactions of individuals of different generations, backgrounds or education. We believe that the possibility of organizing the interactive educational process

around the existing institutionalized schooling system is the most realistic one.

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The National Geography Content Standards: Implications for Initial Teacher Training

Joseph P. Stoltman

Introduction

Geography for Life: National Geography Standards 1994 (Bednarz, 1994) is expected to play an important role in the initial geography teacher training programs in the United States. New teachers will be affected in several ways because the standards do three things. First they identify what it is that scholars, teachers, and lay people believe is important for American students to know about geographic content. Second they add credence to the argument that geography should be a core discipline within the school curriculum. Third they articulate how geography contributes to responsible citizenship through broad based geographic literacy and meaningful applications of geographic information to the study of issues in local communities, the nation, and the world.

The content standards are in response to both political and economic pressures. Political pressures are exerted by legislative bodies that fund much of state supported education. Economic pressures are levied by the business sector that depends upon the state supported school agencies to provide students well qualified in the basics. As such, the content standards provide a roadmap for the American public to become literate in the discipline of geography because it is judged to be in the long term, in the best interests of the country. The standards have as their primary focus the school years, grades Kindergarten through twelve. For this reason, much of the challenge will fall upon new teachers who are prepared in implementation of the content standards.

This will occur in the numerous models for initial teacher training in the United States. This derives from the fact that each of the states develops certification standards for new teachers. Teacher training institutions design programs that enable their graduates to become certificated to teach in

the state where they do their initial training (Spetz, 1988; Winston, 1984).

Overview of the Geography Content Standards. The geography content standards identify what students in American schools should learn and be able to do with knowledge of geography. There are six essential elements of geography into which eighteen standards are grouped. The essential elements identify the disciplinary foundation within which the standards are anchored. For example, the first element is "The World in Spatial Terms," a broad statement and description of how geographic information is arranged and used. Each of the six elements is a foundation block for the discipline. The content standards are statements identifying what it is from geography that students will be learning. The content standards are further supported at the different levels with grade level objectives that describe in greater detail what students might do to demonstrate their knowledge of the content of geography. The essential elements and content standards are interrelated in both broad and intricate ways. They are identified in the next section, with the geography element briefly discussed, followed by the content standards. The geography content standards, and the supporting depth from geographic scholarship, are what initial teacher trainees will use in the selection and design of geography lessons and syllabi over the next several decades in schools in the United States.

Element 1. The World in Spatial Terms: Maps, photographs, and satellite images are principal tools for investigating the relationships between people, places and environments. When information is shown using those tools, it is in a spatial context. The spatial context for geography is the Earth.

continued on page 22

Round the World - WEF Section News

Rosemary Crommelin

Headquarters

As preparations go forward for the Conference in July to mark the 50th Anniversary of the United Nations, so we in London look forward to welcoming WEF members from the Sections overseas. We anticipate that it will be a truly international occasion, and that our meeting together will be not only a celebration of the fifty years which have passed, but an expression of hope for the future.

At a recent meeting of the Guiding Committee we were delighted to welcome Cynthia Shehan (WEF Alternate Representative at the United Nations) and Holly Benkert, both from the US Section, who were visiting London. Together with Elizabeth Flesor they will represent WEF at the 4th World Conference on Women, to be held in Beijing next September.

This year sees also the 50th Anniversary of the adoption of Unesco's Constitution, and WEF has been invited by the United Nations Association in London to join the Commemoration Committee. The Committee plans to organise a major event in London on or about 16 November when the Constitution was signed; it may possibly take place at the Institute of Civil Engineers where the international conference to establish Unesco was held. The involvement of the United Kingdom in establishing Unesco (in which several members of WEF played an active part) and the fact that the instrument of ratification signed

by all members, and by those wishing to join later, is kept at the Foreign Office, makes it all the more regrettable that the United Kingdom is not at present a member. As an NGO WEF is, of course, a member and we look forward to sharing in the planning of the Anniversary celebration towards the end of the year.

Japan

The news of the tragic earthquake in Japan will have had particular poignancy for those who were present at the Conference in Saitama last August. Messages of concern and sympathy were sent from individual Sections at the time, but I cannot pass by this occasion without expressing the feelings of the Fellowship as a whole. Mrs. Aisawa wrote that she had been busy trying to contact several members living in the Kansai district who were missing; their houses had been destroyed, but thankfully they were safe; in all, over 5,000 people had died, and over 300,000 lost houses and jobs.

Earlier this year Mrs. Aisawa, on behalf of WEF, attended the Tokyo Symposium on "New Dimensions of United Nations Peace-keeping Operations" at the UN University in Tokyo. In the keynote address Sir Brian Urquhart, former UN Under-Secretary-General for Special Political Affairs, pointed out that peace-keeping operations had emerged during the early years of UN as a new technique for

conflict control based on co-operation, non-force and the voluntary provision of national contingents. During the Cold War peace-keeping operations dealt almost exclusively with governments and with conflicts between states, whereas today the problem is often ethnic strife or multi-dimensional conflict problems involving great human suffering and violation of human rights, and the need is for conflict control together with humanitarian relief, all of which need quick response. He advocates new approaches, not a substitute for either peace-keeping or enforcement, but something that will fill the gap between them: to provide an immediate UN presence; pin down cease-fires, protect civilians, provide communications, determine the nature of the situation; protect and assist negotiation and conciliation etc. The composition of such a group - military, civilian, police, technicians - and terms of reference, would need to be worked out, together with the question of support from governments.

François Jean of Médecins Sans Frontières spoke on the role of NGOs in the peace process, stressing that humanitarian aid seeks to help and protect without taking part in the conflict, leaving negotiated settlement to the politicians. To preserve their chance of gaining access to the victims, neutrality and distance from political issues is essential. Yet they do play a significant part in the peace process, first in a

preventative way by trying to defuse the tensions which lead to violence, and secondly by their role in rehabilitation and reconstruction activities. The early involvement of humanitarian organisations is important in stabilizing violent situations by maintaining a minimum of normality and perhaps preventing a spiral of violence. He pointed to the absence of such organisations in Mogadishu in 1991/2 and in Kabul in 1994 as contributing to the deterioration of the situations.

He stressed also that their closeness to the people and awareness of conditions often enable the humanitarian organisations to give early warning of a possible crisis, so that an international operation would have more chance of success by being put in hand before the crisis became uncontrollable. In the peace process they have an insight into the needs and expectations of the people, and can advise on the distribution of aid. Above all he stressed the separation of peace enforcement, which supposes clearly defined political objectives, and humanitarian assistance which demands strict impartiality: it is insistence on the distinction between these two which enables humanitarian organisations to gain access to the most threatened people.

Among other contributors Mrs Sadako Ogata, UN High Commissioner for Refugees, (her speech was read by Mr E. Morris) took the theme Conflict, Refugees and Humanitarian Action. She referred to the lessons learned from the situations in former Yugoslavia, Somalia, Cambodia, Mozambique and Zaire, and in summing up she stressed that impartiality and neutrality of humanitarian action are easier to maintain in peace-keeping operations where

political objectives are clear, otherwise problems arise through the tensions between political, military and humanitarian elements.

In all situations humanitarian organisations must maintain the strict non-political, neutral and impartial stand of their mandates. Humanitarian action must not only deliver relief but first ensure the basic rights and security of the victims; this can be done by negotiations, but peace will only come through political solutions, and though they may need to distance themselves from enforcement in order to preserve their neutrality, yet closer consultation between political, military and humanitarian elements are essential. There is no substitute for the political will to find a political solution, and this commitment is essential for humanitarian action to remain effective in the midst of conflict, and to reinforce the process towards peace.

Much of the above is quoted or paraphrased from three important speeches given at the Tokyo Symposium. They remind us of the continued need for both aspects of the practical work of the United Nations: as peace-keepers, and as organisers of relief through its humanitarian agencies.

South Australia

During recent months the South Australian Section reported a start on plans for the 1996 join conference with the University of Malaysia in Sarawak; some members of the Section attended a conference on education opportunities and foreign aid to Malaysia which has provided some useful guidance in their focus on the 1996 conference theme.

Two other successful public meetings were well attended.

One on the topic "What do we do with the boys?" provided guide-lines and strategies for working with boys to counter the stereotyped male role. The second seminar researched the attributes of high achievers; the presenter, Susanne Rix, has a wide range of experience in management development and in the training of gifted students, from which she has developed practical strategies into areas such as accelerated learning. Her seminar provided a unique and rewarding experience for the participants.

Pat Feehan, who is Principal of a school in Adelaide, wrote just before Christmas, "I am finding it very challenging and exciting ... The school is located in one of the lowest socio-economic areas; the children are just delightful. Things are pretty depressed here ... it is hard getting sufficient resources for such things as special education. I have put in for a large building grant, and believe it has been approved by Canberra." A few weeks later she was able to confirm that the grant had been approved - we send congratulations and good wishes, and look forward to hearing news of progress on the new buildings.

Tasmania

Graham Woolley, secretary of the Tasmanian Section, reported a successful National Council meeting of WEF in Launceston, when the matter of participation in the London Conference was raised. He also reported an increase in membership, good attendance at their meetings, and a gradual redressing of the imbalance of older members to young practising teachers. During the year the Section hopes to try to reactivate the southern branch in Hobart.

The geographically informed person knows and understands:

Standard 1. How to use maps and other geographic representations, tools, and technologies to acquire, process and report information from a spatial perspective.

Standard 2. How to use mental maps to organize information about people, places, and environments in a spatial context.

Standard 3. How to analyze the spatial organization of people, places, and environments on Earth's surface.

Element 2. Places and Regions: People are attached to particular places and regions. Regions and places have been given meaning by people, and in turn those places and regions help people to organize and understand the complex world.

The geographically informed person knows and understands:

Standard 4. The physical and human characteristics of places.

Standard 5. That people create regions to interpret Earth's complexity.

Standard 6. How culture and experience influence people's perceptions of places and regions.

Element 3. Physical Systems: The Earth is always changing. Many of the changes are the result physical processes. Geography includes four types of physical processes that are important to understanding the Earth. The atmosphere (weather and climate), the lithosphere (plate tectonics, erosion), the hydrosphere (oceans, water cycle) and biosphere (ecosystems, vegetation) are the physical systems that shape and change the surface of the Earth.

The geographically informed person knows and understands:

Standard 7. The physical processes that shape the patterns of Earth's surface.

Standard 8. The characteristics and spatial distribution of ecosystems on Earth's surface.

Element 4. Human Systems: Human systems are in constant change on the Earth. People migrate, increase, decrease, or stabilize their numbers in different places, and learn ways of living that distinguish a group from other groups. Human systems are comprised primarily of population, culture, settlement, and the cooperation, conflicts, and relationships among those components.

The geographically informed person knows and understands:

Standard 9. The characteristics, distribution, and migration of human populations on Earth's surface.

Standard 10. The characteristics, distribution, and complexity of Earth's cultural mosaics.

Standard 11. The patterns and networks of economic interdependence on Earth's surface.

Standard 12. The processes, patterns, and functions of human settlement.

Standard 13. How the forces of cooperation and conflict among people influence the division and control of Earth's surface.

Element 5. Environment and Society: Human history has witnessed many different instances of people interacting with the environment. People sometimes adjust their lives to fit the environmental conditions while in other settings the natural environment has been greatly altered to meet the needs of people. Some societies have benefitted greatly from environmental resources and others have created environmental hazards and crises in the way the resources have been used.

The geographically informed person knows and understands:

Standard 14. How human actions modify the physical environment.

Standard 15. How physical systems affect human systems.

Standard 16. The changes that occur in the meaning, use, distribution, and importance of resources.

Element 6. The Uses of Geography: Geography provides a means to look at the past, present, and future. Events and issues, regardless of their past, present, or future nature, have a geographical context. The geographical context is important to explaining what happened and where, and what the consequences were or might be, both historically and geographically.

The geographically informed person knows and understands:

Standard 17. How to apply geography to interpret the past.

Standard 18. How to apply geography to interpret the present and plan for the future (Bednarz, 1994, 34-35)

Developing Geographic Skills: Five skill sets for geography are presented with the content standards. The skills are: 1) Asking Geographic Questions; 2) Acquiring Geographic Information; 3) Organizing Geographic Information; 4) Analyzing Geographic Information; and 5) Answering Geographic Questions (Bednarz, 1994, 41-56). This distinction between skills and content is important. The standards make it clear that geography skills are the means to access and address the content in the standards. The five skills

and suggestions for their inclusion focus upon critical thinking and incorporate such processes as knowing, inferring, analyzing, judging, hypothesizing, generalizing, predicting, and decision making (Bednarz, 1994, 45). While the skills are clearly identified, they must be integrated within the numerous content standard suggestions across the students' K - 12 experiences.

Applying the Standards to Curriculum: The geography content standards will have numerous implications for designing school curricula, whether at the State level or in local school districts and classrooms. The standards are intended to promote an appropriate, yet scholarly, experience in geography for all students. Some curricula may place emphasis upon certain selected standards while other curricula will build their strengths on other combinations of the standards. However, across the K - 12 range of curricula, a serious effort should be made to include content standards from geography at every grade level. There are several compelling reasons why the geography standards should be used within the initial teacher training program.

1. The standards reflect the scholarly contributions of geography to students learning in grades K-12.

2. There is considerable agreement among constituent groups that the standards include what young people in the United States should know and be able to do in using geography.

3. The universe of geographic content is reduced to a manageable level within the standards.

4. The standards may be mixed and matched in various scopes and sequences to provide for a content rich social studies.

5. The standards will link all schools that use them with common threads in the curriculum and will provide continuity in content selection for students who change residences and schools during their K - 12 educational experience.

6. The standards provide the framework for what social studies and geography teachers will be required to know and be able to teach when they receive a classroom assignment. The content standards represent baseline knowledge.

7. The materials that initial teachers will receive for use in the classroom and pedagogical materials they will design themselves will, in large part, be based upon the content standards.

The standards do not assure geography of its own timetable in the school curriculum, but they do make it patently clear that geography must be treated with parity along with history, economics and government, three other widely recognized

core academic disciplines in the school curriculum. However, the questions of increasing geography's share of the timetable is somewhat a chicken and egg situation. In the 1980s and 90s there were few specialist teachers initially trained in geography. Thus there were few advocates within the school suggesting that geography play a more prominent role in the curriculum. With greater initial teacher training in geography in preparation for the content standards, it is anticipated that a larger proportion of initial teacher trainees will specialize in geography, enroll for increasingly larger numbers of courses in geography, complete advanced degrees in geography, and thus raise the advocacy level for geography as a prominent school subject.

Applying the Standards to Instruction: The content standards in geography will have an immediate impact upon initial teacher training. The document is teacher friendly. Students in initial teacher training courses will use the content standards to determine student outcomes, to select content for units of instruction and lessons, and to plan for the classroom based assessment of student learning. The structure of the content standards presents the big, powerful ideas of the discipline and then provides suggestions regarding how they can be rendered in the classroom. For example: Standard 2 states that the student should know "How to use mental maps to organize information about people, places, and environments in a spatial context" (Bednarz, 1994, 108). Specific examples of what this means for the teacher and students are presented for grades 4, 8, and 12. At grade 4, the suggested objective for incorporating Standard 2 is that the student knows and understands "the location of places within the local community and in nearby communities." In order to attain that standard, it is suggested to the teacher that the student have the opportunity to "draw a sketch map from memory of the local community showing the route to and from school, to and from stores, and to and from recreational facilities" (Bednarz, 1994, 108). The type of task, the content to be addressed, and the skill used are clearly identified in the standards. The document abounds with suggestions for ways that the teacher may incorporate the standards by giving classroom examples.

An Initial Teacher Training Guide to Geography. *Geography for Life* is an impressive publication with numerous illustrations and layout techniques to make it friendly to the users. Following are several suggestions for using the document.

1. The national content standards in geography are comprehensive. They are best used within the

context of clusters of grade levels: K - 4; 5 - 8; and 9 - 12. The clusters of standards, the recommended student activities, and the sample learning opportunities are organized in a helpful sequence that initial trainee teachers will find useful.

2. The geography content standards should be reviewed in terms of what the teachers are going to teach in the curriculum as an initial teacher. They may find that many of the recommended standards were dealt with in the content preparation. They should identify those and cross reference them to the standard, and build a correlation matrix that indicates what they are familiar with and how it is presented.

3. The teachers should review the standards for the grade level they are teaching. They should use the matrix from cluster and identify standards that are not included in the syllabus. They should then identify those that should be included in relation to those that they have already checked-off on the correlation. Should any be traded, substituted, added, or deleted? The syllabus should be designed to reflect the content standards.

4. *Geography for Life* should be used as a resource for building objectives, lessons, and progress checks into lessons and syllabus. Teachers should begin adjusting their curriculum based on their correlation. The main use for *Geography for Life* is as a syllabus development and classroom guide to identify what can and should be taught that will enhance geographic understanding among all students.

Conclusion

The geography content standards serve as a guide to designing initial teacher training courses. The teacher training is the means to link the content to the curriculum and the classroom. In the United States, the initial training of teachers in geographical education may occur in either

geography or the social studies. The geography content standards have direct application to both geography as a separate course and as a part of the integrated social studies. They are written in a clear, concise manner with numerous specific applications that can be transferred directly to the curriculum and the classroom. They are inclusive of the fundamental themes of geography that have been widely accepted and used in initial teacher training (Joint Committee on Geographic Education, 1984; Ludwig, 1991). The themes, location, place, human/environment relationships, movement, and regions, are common terminology within the 18 standards, and even more common within the learning opportunities that are suggested.

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Dr. Joseph P. Stoltman is Professor of Geography at Western Michigan University, USA. Between 1980 and 1988 he was the chairman of the Commission, Geography Education, of the International Geographical Union.

The NGO Standing Committee of UNESCO is organising a **poster competition** related to the **United Nation's Year of Tolerance**. Participants have to be children under the age of 15, presented by an NGO. The technical prescriptions are:

- size: 40cms x 60cms, 120 g.
- presentation: with or without margins and containing the single caption - **The International Year of Tolerance 1995 / Tolerance in Daily Life**.

For information contact the Editor.

The Rainbow Week Movement was launched in 1979 and has been backed by UNESCO, The International Olympic Committee, the European Union, l'Agence de Cooperation Culturelle et Technique and numerous international organisations.

In 1995 the **10th International Year of the Youth** will be celebrated. It is aimed at promoting understanding and co-operation between children and youth from across the world, encouraging them to participate in global development.

The **7th International Rainbow Week** will be celebrated in South Africa from 3 to 10 December 1995.

"Building of Friendship Through Physical Activity and Cultural Exchange"

COUNTRY FOCUS: Visions of a Future Australian Society

Thomas C. Daffern

Visions of a Future Australian Society: Towards an Educational Curriculum for 2020 and Beyond, W.J.Campbell, M.M.McMeniman and N.Baikaloff, Published by the Ministerial Consultative Council on Curriculum, Queensland, Australia, 1992.

This fascinating study, comprising an in-depth analysis of visions of the kind of society which a selected group of Australian thinkers wish to see develop in the future, raises profound issues of wider concern to the international community as a whole, particularly the educational and intellectual community.

Commissioned by the Australian Government (The Ministerial Consultative Council on Curriculum) 3 members of the World Educational Fellowship, Professor Jack Campbell, Dr Marilyn Mcmeniman and Nick Baikaloff, undertook what is in effect the first stage of a longer process of educational reflection.

Before there can be agreement about the kind of educational strategies to be followed in any given society, there needs to be agreement about the final goals and outcomes which one is hoping the educational process will achieve.

Too often, conflicts and competition exist over the political control of education whilst different political objectives seek their basic preparatory consolidation through the educational system.

Imagine a society where this did not happen; a society of articulate, intelligent, concerned citizens who could circumvent such divisive and wasteful use of intellectual resources, and would instead engage in prior in-depth deliberation to achieve agreement and some kind of overall consensus on the nature of the goals which society as a whole wishes the educational system to fulfil.

But, you will say, this is not possible... for agreement over common educational goals surely depends on agreement on basic life purposes, on the kind of overall life objectives which a given society, and the individuals comprising that society, sets for itself? Educational objectives mirror and extend some of the most fundamental value questions that concern the self awareness of societies and individuals in themselves.

Yet, it is precisely in order to fulfil this very first step in the chain of reasoning that our authors have designed their study in the way they have. Rather than leaving the question of the regulation of educational goals to the chaotic rulings of the political market place, and give up the idea of a rational inquiry into fundamental objectives in these matters, they have confronted head-on the need for attempting to uncover some basic agreement as to the essential objectives which thinking Australians as a whole believe in.

The authors have constructed their methodology around the notion of "vision". They asked the question of their group of respondents, what sort of Australian society would you wish to see come into existence by the year 2020 AD and beyond?

Out of an initial group of 500 selected key intellectuals and thinkers from across Australia's diverse community of 17 million inhabitants, (who were "known to have reflected on the nature of Australian society, where it has come from, its present strengths and weaknesses and where it might best go") an eventual random sample of 74 specific in depth "vision statements" were submitted. 11 out of these 74 are included in this publication, (all anonymously) and make fascinating reading. Adopting a version of the Delphi technique, in

which the opinions of the sample of experts are then in turn resubmitted to each participant with requests for further refinement and review of opinions in a stage by stage dialectical feedback process, common themes began to emerge. The disparate individual vision statements were in turn broken down and synthesised into overall shared vision clusters which were felt to be worthwhile societal goals. In spite of individual differences, enough of a common consensus emerged to indicate a six fold structuring.

The first "vision screen" could be characterised as the SENSE OF COMMUNITY - issues such as the neighbourhood, the family, the sense of social solidarity in one's own area etc. The value of multicultural tolerance and community was essential here.

The second concerns the creation of a society in which the value of each member is assured, in which care, compassion and justice are the inherent right of each member of society

Thirdly, the authors identified a common strand in the vision of an Australian society which values the full realisation of human potential, in all the diverse ways in which human beings are capable of so developing themselves, including 6 areas particularly: knowledge, rationality, empathy, a sense of personal control, moral responsibility and spirituality.

This series of shared vision goals constitutes in some ways the philosophical core of the study, since it raises questions about the nature of the kind of knowledge which an ideal Australian society should be pursuing. The study supposed there are two basic levels of knowledge - technical competence and integrative learning, or higher cognitive, including a "disciplined imagination", from

which alone empathy can be developed.

In other words, the kind of knowledge which it was hoped a future Australian society would attain would be not merely one of skill or technical mastery, but would also concern ethical values and the search for moral responsibility.

As one of the respondents put it: "We need people who have the one quality more important than know-how. This property may be called "know what", by which we determine not only how to accomplish our purposes, but what our purposes are to be. As knowledge and information become the major resource in the 21st century, we must ensure that the right sorts of knowledge and information are distributed where they are needed most".

The 4th shared goal cluster concerned the need for a healthy and robust economy, yet not necessarily in shallow conventional terms, but rather in human terms, in which people are seen as the greatest resource, and in which work is needing redefining as the pursuit of human potential in its full diversity.

The 5th shared vision concerned ecological responsibility, with respondents recognising the country's unique natural resources as demanding a special responsibility for conservation.

The 6th cluster of visions concerned Australia's role in the world: here it was felt that the geographical and cultural specificity of the country gave her a special interest in international peace and world order, yet without losing a sense of scale and localism. Indeed it was felt that local, regional and international identities can overlap in a complementary manner: '-...a more outward looking world view will require future Australians to reconcile national affiliations and world citizenry, and to accept that a global perspective is not a rejection of one's national identity and native culture, but a transcending of these. it is not a case of one or the other but a case of the complementarity of nationalism, regionalisation and internationalism" (page 55)

In addition to the general areas of preferred visions, the authors had identified 22 key societal goals which it was felt reflected the desires of the respondents in general. They were then asked to rank them in order of importance and the tables so produced are given in full in the publication. Finally, the 22 societal goals were drawn up in conceptual maps and diagrams showing the relative hierarchical or organisational relationship of each goal to each of the others.

Certainly then, as I have tried to indicate, the booklet is an ambitious attempt to tackle a basic need facing not only Australian but other societies at the present time, namely a lack of consensus around the ultimate life goals which we should be pursuing.

The study is furthermore specifically tailored in such a way as to imply that the intention is to then utilise this basic framework of consensus on goals as a bedrock when it comes to actually developing curriculum reform in the educational systems of Australia.

In this regard however, the book leaves us dangling rather frustratingly for nowhere is there any discussion of how such a transfer from agreements on goals and visions to concrete educational content, might work in practice. The implications of the study are rather left hanging in the air without being followed up. One hopes that the authors intend to do so in due course.

What we do have instead however, is a fascinating inquiry into significant matters preliminary to educational content per se. We also have some very useful insights into the nature of knowledge which is assumed to be underlying the aim of society in the first place.

There was consensus that in the modern world it is vital for Australia to become a truly "clever country"? But mere cleverness of the technical sort cannot suffice: most said values more important than knowledge .. One teacher respondent stated that "graduates often have little understanding of the place of values and ethical issues in social and economic policy or in business and

personal behaviour"... In other words, intelligence and soul must be developed simultaneously.

In a sense this report can be seen as the fruits of a sort of nationwide think tank among some very creative minds as to the best way onward for the country's future educational and intellectual identity: "participants make specific reference to the potential contribution of Australia's neglected intellectual resources". The image of Australia given abroad is often one of anti-intellectualism, focusing on sport and the outdoor life etc, but this is something which the authors obviously wish to correct, and certainly, the contribution of that country to fields such as scientific developments, philosophy, literature and the arts has been highly creative.

The report is also sensitive to the paradox that often the most creative intellectual work is undertaken on the frontiers of the permissible; stretching the limits of the known involves, by definition, challenging the status quo guardians of knowledge at any one given point in time: a creative education is more about transmitting the courage to ask questions from a place of wonder, than preaching dogmatism from a place of certainty.

"The creative energy of those unreasonable or difficult persons who think and move beyond currently acceptable ways of doing things is essential to the change process."

Perhaps the most interesting part of this report is that concerning the placing of spirituality in the overall study and goal mapping. Spirituality in itself seems to involve precisely this energy of creativity, this continuous moving beyond previous definitions into new configurations of meaning:

"Spirit and spiritual refer to the possible and the unimagined - to new ways, new knowledge, new relationships, and new awareness... many of the value systems include a transcendent goal as the nucleus" ... Everyone experiences and continues to have the possibility of experiencing the transcending of

present forms of life, of finding that life is more than is presently known or lived. This is what education is about. Education is only possible because the human being is a being that can transcend itself".

In these matters the report begins to move over from the strictly educational and into the prophetic. For it is precisely education which reconciles and unites the transcendent and the mundane, the most transcendental and ethereal of the qualities bound up in being human - and all will be needed if Australia's future is to be as successful as her potential is capable of.

Yet the sort of educated spirituality which the respondents sought was not conceived as a individualist transcendence, but rather a deeper sense of conscience

and ethical sensitivity lived out in the fullest social context:

"Blatant individualism can result in the neglect of the social fabric of human life.. as evidence from biology shows, it is not the fittest who survive but those who know how to cooperate with other elements in their environment... perhaps the answer then to the problem of individual versus societal interests lies in the concept of the cooperative or collaborative individual whereby individual and collective needs may be reconciled".

It is precisely in this task of reconciling individual and social needs that education can and does play its crucial role, for it is at once an individual and a social process.

The authors of this study are to be commended for having begun a

process of questioning that has significance outside the cultural context in which it has arisen. It says a great deal about the prospects of a society if the visions of its future are full and energetic, teeming with positive ideas and with work to be accomplished. In reading this report, we are all made a little richer, not least in being encouraged to consider our own life goals and objectives with imagination and depth. To update the biblical text (Proverbs 29:18):

"Where the vision of the people is strong, everyone will flourish"

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International Dimensions in the National Curriculum - a comeback

Rex Andrews

All parents, I suppose, have a natural inclination to defend their offspring, so I hope that I may be forgiven for offering a few words in reply to one or two points raised in Geoffrey Short's review of my book *International Dimensions in the National Curriculum in the New Era in Education* 74, 3. I appreciated his observations that the book was 'well researched' and 'eminently readable'; but in view of that I wish he'd read it a bit more carefully.

In the first place, to suggest that the book is 'predicated on a popular but contentious assumption; namely, that intolerance is a product of ignorance' is a gross oversimplification, and any reading based on such a view must distort its message. The book is certainly not predicated on any one assumption. International understanding is too complex a field to be approached in this way. In fact, much of the book is concerned to point out the dangers of over-generalising. In the language section it deals with the problem of 'two-valued orientation' and recommends 'coping constructively

with different points of view' rather than simply dismissing them, and elsewhere 'fixed ideas and judgements' are deplored. However, this is not to deny that ignorance is one of the factors in intolerance. Sometimes more knowledge about a group or situation can make us more tolerant of it; but the reverse can also be true. In any case, (and I quote from the book) 'because the presentation of facts is seldom value-free,...teaching can result in negative, just as easily as in positive, attitudes to other countries and cultures and problems.' So 'facts' cannot be entirely separated from the colouring in which they are encountered.

For some reason the reviewer pours scorn on my approval of the encouragement given in the *National Curriculum* to 'deal politely with opposing points of view'. To justify this total dismissal of civility he asserts that 'to hint that the troubles in Northern Ireland or the Middle East have anything to do with incivility is frankly ludicrous.' I don't know who hinted this, but it

wasn't me! He then 'doctors' a quotation from the book in order to pursue his point. 'How many adults are incapable of disagreeing without rudeness...and how much conflict in the world stems from this incapacity?' he quotes. But by omitting my words 'and hostility' after 'rudeness' he throws all the emphasis on incivility, ignoring a crucial word that denotes 'enmity, unfriendliness, angry opposition'. Surely some of the conflicts in the world are due to this kind of thing! Having said this, I remain of the opinion that courtesy in listening to other points of view is relevant to international understanding and peace efforts. The reduction of conflict in Northern Ireland is certainly not helped by the impolite utterances of Dr Ian Paisley; for example: 'You have sold Ulster to buy off the fiendish Republican scum,' (quoted in *The Guardian* 19-12-93). Compare this with the habitual courtesy adopted by Gandhi whose peace-making achievements in India few would deny, although they fell short of his

hopes. True, I would prefer the National Curriculum to have used the word 'courtesy' in preference to 'politeness'; but I assume that their aim was to encourage the mutual respect without which true diplomacy is vain.

I am also taken to task for 'failure to acknowledge the arguments of those who oppose multiculturalism on the grounds that racism has nothing to do with ignorance of other cultures'. The distinction being made here, I gather, is between 'multiculturalists' and 'antiracists'; and I am, as far as I can make out, being rebuked for being one of the former, and failing to understand the latter. I have to admit that, despite all the debating about it, I have never been convinced of the reality of a total dichotomy here; and I confess to being both a multiculturalist and an antiracist. And despite Geoffrey Short's strictures, I remain concerned that people should know more about the achievements of black scientists, engineers and musicians and Islamic mathematicians and artists, partly because it's a good thing for all of us to be aware of, and acknowledge human excellence wherever it exists, and partly because I believe it's good for the morale of ethnic and religious minorities to recognise role models they can readily identify with. Of course it is possible 'to assimilate knowledge of this kind and at the same time subscribe to racist myths and half-truths'. But such knowledge would presumably make it less easy to justify racists attitudes - even if the knowledge were not valid in its own right.

Stranger still, I am supposed to be oblivious of the new racism, the essence of which is the alleged threat posed by a multicultural society to national cohesion'. At this point I really began to wonder whose book Geoffrey Short had been reading. It certainly doesn't appear to have been mine. Discussing literature for a new world order, for example, I wrote, under the heading of 'What is a national culture?'

When questions of widening our reading horizons come up, some people express anxiety about the

possible erosion of 'our national heritage' of literature and the destabilization of our shared culture. And this is understandable. Points of reference held in common give us a sense of security. We can make allusions and know that we shall be understood. But it is an illusion to think that literary culture is a static phenomenon.

This example alone surely shows recognition of 'the alleged threat' in question? I am then reproved for being too 'international and contemporary' (which is a bit hard considering the title of the book!) and am berated for failing 'to show British children that British society has never been culturally monolithic and has, in fact, benefited in innumerable ways from successive waves of immigration.' It is ironic that my aims are entirely in agreement with those of the reviewer, while it is puzzling that he failed to see this. For example, English students are shown in the book to be advantaged by the fact that:

Readers who range widely ...cannot help becoming aware of the diverse nature of their own society and the cultural variety which is a product of its own history and contacts with other cultures. (p.132)

Abundant examples are given to show that, while 'nationalism of the extreme Right encourages a myth of a static society and a static language', our own changing language indicates the fluid nature of society and nationhood. English is perhaps one of the most cosmopolitan languages in the world: it is open to all comers...' (p.39). And later: 'English culture is in any case an amalgam of diverse sources and until a little more than a century ago its two main threads as far as literature was concerned were Classical (from Greece and Rome) and biblical from the Middle East...' (etc.) (p.128).

Considering England within a European context, the fact that 'European nation states are presented as being inherently monolithic, monocultural and monolingual' is deplored, as in fact: 'European states have long been a hotch-potch... of different

languages, regions, social classes, families, religions and traditions. The ethnicity (in terms of racial difference) which was an issue for Normans and Anglo-Saxons has long ago dissolved, as have many subsequent ethnic tensions; but the mythology suggests that European societies have only recently become diversified, and that the onus of diversity in European societies lies on the immigrants'. (p.123)

In addition to my 'over-simplified conceptualization of racism' (sic!) I have evidently failed 'to consider the importance of pedagogy'. And here comes the punch-line: 'There is no awareness on the author's part of the crucial relationship between message and medium' and a failure to discuss 'strategies such as collaborative learning'. Here I begin to despair at the problems of communication between friends, let alone those between conflicting states! 'Creative teachers,' I write as early as page 2, '...recognise that process is equally important as content, and that vital attitudes depend as much on the way subject-matter is taught as upon the syllabus content itself.' And as to approach, 'Education should be flexible, creative and open' (p.25), while the English section of the National Curriculum is given credit (pp.28-29) for encouraging pupils:

- to listen carefully and respond in discussion
- to work in groups of different sizes
- to listen to others' reactions
- to reflect, respond to or extend the ideas and opinions of a previous speaker
- to draw other people into the talk and ensure that all views
- are given a fair hearing
- to deal politely with opposing points of view
- to negotiate consensus...

and later, for proposing that 'Pupils should write individually and in groups, sharing their writing with others and discussing what they have written' (etc.) followed by my comment: 'The element of co-operation here is obviously to be welcomed...' (p.40) Discussing mathematics: 'The manner or

process - the class organisation and atmosphere - are vital...In the spirit of developing tolerance and understanding, the teacher can encourage co-operation rather than competition in the achievement of these activities' (p.45). In addition to encouraging group work in science, I suggest that 'there is no reason why pupils' self-respect should not be enhanced by their being consulted on the rules and sanctions appropriate for the sake of their mutual security in the laboratory' (etc)(p.57) In discussing geography, design and technology, physical education, religious education, etc, the importance of process is continually stressed through advocacy of team work, mutual learning and cooperation. The book does not aim to offer specific lesson plans, but the discerning reader will

find plenty of ideas and strategies to promote international understanding within the various subjects of the National Curriculum.

It is strange that a reviewer whose professed concern in 'combating the new racism' is that one's 'focus ought to be national and historical rather than international and contemporary' should choose to review a book which by its very title is international and contemporary. Perhaps this accounts for the misunderstandings, and for the fact that he seems to have ignored the fact that it is about internationalism at all. It is true that multicultural issues and attitudes are an important element in the book, but as I explain:

'The recognition that Britain is a pluralist society provides an opportunity to explore some of the implications inherent in the idea that

in some respects Britain is a microcosm of the wider world, and it is to be hoped that teachers will take advantage of this in looking at relevant international issues'.

However, this is only one aspect of a book that considers also environmental issues, the arms race, the implications of glasnost and perestroika, global citizenship, problems of international sport, world literature, etc, etc.

The best way to find out what is in it is of course to read it - with a reasonable amount of care. Fortunately, I am glad to say, other reviewers have managed to do this!

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REVIEWS

Innocence and Experience: Restructuring Primary Education

by Robin Alexander, ASP Papers,
1994, 44pp., ISBN 0 948080 78,
Price £3.95

Blake (hence the title) and Rousseau hold the key to understanding the 'Progressive Legacy' to be seen in today's English primary education; and Robert Lowe, with his principle of 'cheap...or efficient', continues to influence its funding through the 'Elementary Legacy'. So through a historical analysis of the development and continuity of these two distinctive traditions Professor Alexander begins his argument in this paper for a restructuring of primary education.

The paper follows the four papers in which the Association for the Study of Primary Education dealt with aspects of 'Managing Primary Education'. The association, launched in 1988, is committed to study, and to the collaboration between all those concerned with primary education.

Alexander continues with a series of illuminating snapshots of English

education. These are taken every 30 years from 1839 - the year when the Committee of Council for Education began state intervention and where, even then, can be identified the humane and liberal infant tradition running alongside the motley array of schools run on the large-numbers, cheap, monitorial system. In 1931 the Hadow Report gave 'legitimation of "primary education" as both idea and legal entity'. This report contained the celebrated assertion that 'The curriculum is to be thought of in terms of activity and experience rather than knowledge to be acquired and facts to be stored'. Alexander muses ruefully on what the consequences might have been had the report not bowed to the intense pressure to alter 'and' to 'rather than'!

Continuities of the Elementary legacy are then identified, including cheapness, the tendency to narrowness in the curriculum and the centrality of the classteacher. A larger section looks at the Progressive legacy whose success is seen as patchy due to good practice being associated with influential and charismatic Chief Education

Officers, inspectors and advisers, whereas elsewhere half understood theories are put into different practice through an authoritarian climate entirely at odds with the freedom being advocated for the child.

In his conclusion, 'Reconstructing primary Education - Where Now?', Alexander identifies a loss of confidence, lack of resources and growing confusion over purposes and rationale, and against this sets out an agenda of eight broad priorities. Under 'Purposes' he calls for a clear view of the needs of the country and of individuals which combines prediction with a proper debate about values, and acknowledges that the National Commission has taken up this challenge, though with limitations. He groups three priorities under 'Structure' and argues for a less rigid compartmentalism for the primary phase with realistic funding and wider staffing: 'teaching roles....redefined in relation to the educational task....rather than number of classes'. In two priorities under 'Pedagogy' he notes the shift from developmentalism to interactive learning and calls for the

dynamic application of current extensive and incisive research. Finally he identifies two imperatives under 'Curriculum': the necessity for 'breadth and balance' to include all the curriculum - and not have the National Curriculum effectively marginalise the arts, moral, and social education; and the necessity to call into question the 'back to basics' implication that the basic skills of today's education equate with the 3 R's.

There are comprehensive reference notes; and this informative and stimulating paper concludes with a call for all those who come together under such a body as ASPE to work together to reconstruct a vision of primary education which is truly effective both for the country and for the child; and is the antithesis of Blake's picture of provision which is,

'In a rich and fruitful land...

Fed with cold and usurious hand'.

David Warner

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Helen's S of E JMI School,
Wheathampstead, Herts, U.K.**

Investigating Classroom Talk,

by A.D. Edwards & D.P. Westlake,
Revised & Extended 2nd Edition,
The Falmer Press, 1994, ISBN
0/7507/0325/3 (Paperback) 203pp.

One of the more irksome features of educational debates in recent years has been the propensity of self-styled traditionalists to make simplistic assertions, backed by the thinnest anecdotal evidence, that a return to didacticism and silent acquiescence will somehow improve children learning. Not the least of the virtues of this new edition of Edwards and Westlake book is that it provides a refreshing reminder of the complexity and richness of classroom experience and of the immense potential of talking to learn.

The first edition of the book was published in 1987 and became widely recognised as an important text in the field of classroom

language studies. This new edition has been completely revised and updated to take account of recent developments such as the National Oracy Project and the Cox proposals for National Curriculum English. The basis of the book is the use of classroom studies to investigate methods of recording and analyzing talk, the technicalities of the process, the use of linguistic analysis to interpret findings and ways in which teachers might become more aware of the value of talk as a support to learning. The mass of exemplar material is adroitly handled and the arguments are clearly developed and sustained within a coherent and ordered structure.

There is a risk that the general reader might be deterred by the Glossary of Essential Terms with which the book opens, but it is in fact a clear and helpful adjunct to the linguistic analysis which features so largely in the text. The introductory chapter describes how interest in classroom language has grown over the last 20 years, with its concentration on the processes rather than the outcomes of learning, and how it can provide "a collaborative discourse through which meanings are shared and constructed". Teachers have welcomed and become actively involved in the research, though the political Right has contested it "as part of a campaign against 'progressive' practice".

The subsequent chapters are so closely argued and rich in exemplar material and textual references that it is only possible here to give very brief indications of their content. In Chapter 1 the authors discuss a rationale for researching classroom talk, advocating the use of linguistic concepts and terminology in order to present in a coherent way the mass of data now being assembled. In particular pragmatics and discourse analysis, with their emphasis on context in the broadest sense, are thought to be essential aids to the interpretation of transcripts of classroom talk. The next chapter uses some of these organising ideas to explore aspects of classroom talk,

including extracts from transcripts in which teachers largely dominate the conversation, the difficulties of obtaining "less orthodox examples" and the understandable unwillingness of teachers to seem to relinquish control. There is thus a tendency to create "unequal communicative rights" and the authors go on in later chapters to show how research methods analyze the evidence for this.

Chapter 3 considers some of these methodological choices, none of which is suitable for all research purposes; the authors therefore argue that an eclectic approach to research is to be preferred. The examples used range from bare transcripts to a piece which looks like an exercise in prosody. Although no one method is favoured the authors conclude that "literal and plain transcription of the words and their presentation in play-script form would be unlikely to reveal the subtle differences in participation."

Chapters 4, 5 and 6 investigate three broad methodological orientations. Chapter 4 deals with systematic classroom observation - that is observation contained within a predetermined system of categories, often using a series of codes. Limitations of this approach include a tendency to oversimplify and to ignore the full context of the observations. In Chapter 5 the authors examine ways of interpreting classroom communication where the categories are not predetermined. In order not to impose the outsiders view prolonged and "insightful" observation is needed, together with structural analysis and an awareness of context and the unspoken. Such observation has led to a realisation that many pupils experience of talk is impoverished because of an over-emphasis on "school" rather than normal conversational conventions. Chapter 6 deals with approaches to talk which show the most directly linguistic orientation. Analysis of discourse is used to "infer what was meant from what was said". Categories may be used but post hoc and are linguistic rather

than quantitative. This analysis shows again how limited classrooms can be in the options made available to pupils - in some instances home language is much richer than school. There are however signs that teachers are becoming aware of this and that changes are taking place.

The authors conclude that, with language now recognised as being central to educational processes, the boundary between teacher and researcher should become less sharply defined and that teachers should become less suspicious of technical language and realise that classroom research can deepen understanding of the complexity of language.

The main difficulty with this study is perhaps the question of audience - which is somewhat ironical given its subject matter. The authors cite reviewers of the first edition who felt the book was "essentially written for researchers not teachers" and challenge this view since their professed intentions were "to address a wide audience interested in classroom talk, teachers most certainly included". Teachers and students will indeed find much to interest them here, but the text, despite its clarity of argument, is not always easily accessible. Some of the linguists quoted express themselves inelegantly to say the least - "unless we believe that language users present each other with prefabricated chunks of linguistic strings (sentences)" - and the authors themselves are not always exactly limpid - "and while such foregrounding is indispensable (sic) in studies of evidently intercultural classrooms, all classrooms can be considered as settings in which pupils work as quasi-ethnographers trying to crack the teachers code". The impression of researchers cosily writing for other researchers is heightened by the fact that no fewer than 400 sources or texts are directly referred to. However persistence will undoubtedly reward the enquiring general reader.

Teachers would probably prefer less emphasis on methods of research and more on findings. What are the success criteria for enhanced classroom talk? Is there evidence that learning is improved? Would the authors consider using evidence from development-based teacher appraisal which has led teachers to observe each other more readily and more perceptively than in the past? What can be learnt from new approaches to teaching in such subjects as Drama? These are all areas of concern to those teachers who have worked with their pupils over the years to enrich the learning experience and who would certainly find it worthwhile making the effort to come to terms with the ideas and arguments of this book.

Ken Gregory
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Colonialism, Slavery and the Industrial Revolution. A Case Study: The Empire in South Yorkshire, 1700 - 1860,

by Alison Twells. Development Education Centre, South Yorkshire, England, 1992, £14.00

This is a history teaching pack which explores the relationship between Britain's Industrial Revolution and colonialism in the Caribbean, Ireland and India. The pack was developed in close collaboration with history teachers in the centre of debates about history in the National Curriculum in Britain. It contains three booklets, one of which is a set of documents, a poster and a checklist.

Apart from enabling teachers in Britain to delve into certain aspects of the National Curriculum, the pack has aims which are of broader interest to all educators.

It is designed to enable students to understand the significance of colonialism, not as a 'dimension' of the history of Britain as an imperial power, but as central to the country's

economic, political and cultural development. It is an example of the long lasting effects of colonialism, evident in our experiences today.

By taking the links between industrialization in Britain and colonial 'underdevelopment' in countries of the South (often referred to as 'Third World' countries) the pack aims to show how global inequalities have arisen largely as a result of the process.

The additional specific value of the pack lies in its coverage of the experience of both colonizing and colonized countries, but with differences both within and between nations according to issues of race, class and gender.

By way of underlining the relevance of the past to the contemporary world the pack helps students explore a number of ideas and concepts, such as power (and its distribution), change, continuity, exploitation, resistance and racism.

The pack is organized in four units: *Unit One* places Britain's Industrial Revolution in a global context, *Unit Two* Eighteenth century economic and political connections between Britain and the Caribbean and West Africa. *Unit Three* the relationship between colonialism in Ireland and Industrial Revolution. *Unit Four* draws together some of the major themes of the pack as illustrated by the **Great Exhibition of 1851**.

The Teachers' Book contains a commentary on documents, an outline of teachers' activities and photocopiable activity pages.

This is a very welcome teaching pack. It is well produced, is asking challenging questions of children and teachers, and enables history to be made relevant to the present for teachers following the National Curriculum in Britain. For those in other countries, it demonstrates the essential need for a complex analyses of the past, to help understand the present.

Sneh Shah .

FOR AND ABOUT WEF MEMBERS

Professor W.J. (Jack) Campbell



Professor Jack Campbell, a new Vice-President of WEF International has had a long Association with WEF Australia: he was President of the Queensland Section

in the early 1970s, and President of the Australian Council from 1977-79 and again from 1990-92. He has also been a member of the International Guiding Committee since 1990.

Professor Campbell was born and raised in Oreti Plains, Southland New Zealand. He volunteered for World War II service at the age of 18, and subsequently served in various infantry battalions for four years in the Middle East and Pacific theatres. During those years he also studied for a New Zealand B.A. by correspondence. In the five years following his discharge from the army, he was awarded three prestigious scholarships, and completed an M.A. and Dip. Ed. from the University of New Zealand, as well as an A.I.E. and a PhD from London University.

Since emigrating to Australia in 1955, Professor Campbell has chaired numerous reviews of national and state educational programs, has published extensively in the international academic literature, and in November 1978, he was the only Australian among 35 international social scientists

who were invited to Berlin to discuss a desirable future for Europe. In 1985 he was awarded the ANNEXES Alexander Mackle Medal for the "most distinguished contribution to education in Australia and New Zealand", and, in the same year, he was the first recipient of the Cleric McNamara Award for "excellence of service to Australian education and for upholding the traditions and principles of WEF".

Professor Campbell has held university appointments at Otago, Sydney, Kansas, Illinois, Queensland and Uppsala. He is married to Dr. E. Campbell (a former editor of *New Horizons in Education*), and the couple have three children and one grandchild.

Professor Campbell was appointed an Officer of the Order of Australia (AO) Australia's second highest civilian award in the 1994 Queen's Birthday Honours List.

**Nicholas Baikaloff, WEF
Australia**

FROM THE OTHER END

Poems by Banira Giri

As a girl Banira Giri, born in 1946 at Kurseong, Dargling, grew up in Kathmandu, Nepal. She studied at the Tribhuvan University, and she was the first woman to obtain a doctorate in Nepali literature. Her literary work consists of poems and novels. The university has included her work in the post graduate research curriculum.

Reading Banira Giri's poems I experience the creation of a sub-text of love and agony, travelling through a beautiful landscape and experiencing suffering cities. While I read I am plotting my imagination of the world which the poems create, developing feeling and capacity for seeing and understanding the persona that the poetess brings into existence.

Sweet dreams
drowse the sunny days of my youth.
In the rising sun's
service I pour a jug of brookwater
and white elephants come,
flying through flashing waterfalls,
into the blue skies of my consciousness.
A pile of tulips
pregnates the sack of my sari.
Such scenes of memorial and beauty,
and of love and expectation, are opposed
with images and situations that cause
painful emotions.

Out from
blue ocean's bed, from the blankets

of emerald green forests,
from the seething stretch of endless
deserts
rises
a bitter storm of black rain.
In what direction, love,
is this black bulk of poison heading?
You know that man
hobbling down the valley
with an ocean
of black clouds clutched under his
armpit?
Is he going
to blight the emerald pastures
of our damp dreams ?

Reading the poems, you look in agony at
the sufferings for survival of the Nepalese
masses, and at the same time you feel the
love for the country, the valley and the
hillsides, walking the dark hillpaths, and
taking delight in images that show events
of rejoicing.

Can't your
imagination be as fragrant
as odeur
of mutton boiling in a hillside hut?
* * * *

Let us play
holi in the blood-spilling rise of the
angry sun.

Let us guard
the rise of the full moon.

Let us shatter
the castle of the stars.

Let us make
wine in the turbulent pitcher of the
ocean.

Let us roast
bread in the oven of the sky.
Becoming a pair of fish, let us play
the game of life
in the warm water of green ponds.

Banira Giri creates a world that takes the
whole attention of the reader, from poem
to poem walking on the rhythm of the
words that become images, of love and
beauty together with agony and darkness.

Reading her poems the reader may
experience the strength and the true worth
of poetry, creating a new reality in which
he or she can see, through the surface of
existence, the world of the poetess, a
woman's world, in which man's child
sleeps 'in the cradle I rock'.

Son of a man he is,
what more would you want ?
Let him
climb your shoulders.
Let him rise
to view the worries of the world.
Make him
a mighty rider.
Play, pipes of welcome.
His beginning
of this journey is promise of our life.

Peter van Stapele.
The Netherlands Section.

***From the other end. Poems by
Banira Giri. Adapted from the Nepali
and with an Introduction by Yuyutsu
R.D., Nirala Publications, Jaipur/New
Dehli, First Edition 1987**

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NEW ERA IN EDUCATION is the termly journal of the **World Education Fellowship (WEF)**. The Fellowship is an international association with sections and representatives in more than twenty countries, which has played a continuing role in promoting the progress of educational ideas and practices in the twentieth century.

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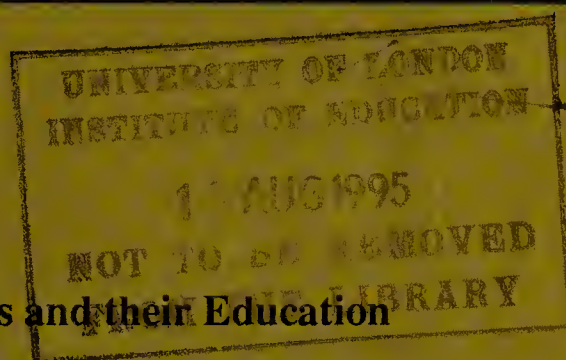
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Contributions to *New Era in Education* are welcomed. All articles are refereed. A copy of the guidelines for authors can be obtained from the Editor. Reports, short articles, or views on any aspect that relates to the principles of the World Education Fellowship are also very welcome. The Editor is anxious to receive details of good practice and responses to themes covered in the precious issues.

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NOT TO BE REMOVED
FROM THE LIBRARY**Refugees: Defining the Learners and their Education**

“Prior to our arrival in this country in 1989 we had dreadful experiences in my country. All my five children and I were very distressed because of the traumas we had suffered. The children developed both medical and psychiatric problems. My daughter, now aged 12 years, was indeed the most affected of all the children. She was psychologically affected and as a result she developed fits in which she threw herself uncontrollably. She suffered from seizures, head banging, complained of terrible headaches and stomach aches, burst into tears, was very scared at night, refused to eat, needed to be accompanied to the toilet, feared heights and only traveled in lifts when clutching an adult’s hand.

And yet, prior to our traumas, she was a happy, healthy and well adjusted girl. She related well to adults and her peers. Her condition caused immense psychological stress for the entire family. All the children, too, were very shy, sad and withdrawn. It was very difficult for them to develop social skills. They chose to remain lonely. Their behaviour was of particular concern when I remembered, as a mother, my children who had previously been outgoing and sociable and then suddenly they became different. I could not cope on my own with these sad feelings. Our problems then needed prompt help from staff at school and professionals in hospitals.

Our problems were linked to a significant change in our lives which put us under great stress. We really found it difficult to come to terms with the feelings about our losses; we lost our home, close family members, friends and the schools. The children thought they would not see their father again for initially we were uncertain of his whereabouts.

We were lonely and felt we were living in an unfamiliar environment, a strange world, unsure of the system and the culture. Life to me was hopeless. Such feelings and conditions continued for a long time. It actually took years of effort by medical professionals (Paediatric Dept and Department of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry) to settle us as a family. We are really very grateful to them all.

At the moment the children are beginning to settle in schools, they are happy and have made friends.

Somehow we can now actually talk about our dreadful experiences, although it is still difficult for

these were deep wounds which have left us with permanent scars.”

These are the words of a woman, Adele, from an African country, who has now been given refugee status in Britain. Her story is typical of many other men and women who have fled their country in order to escape terror, fighting for a cause they believe in. Adele’s words describe only too clearly the very serious nature of their suffering, which did not end when they left their country. The fact that it has taken some years before Adele felt she could talk about her suffering, and let it be publicised indicates the depth of the trauma. Even now her husband does not want to talk about it, and feels what the family wants more than anything else is peace so they can re-build their lives. That is not easy either. Having left all their belongings behind means that economically it may be a very long time before a family can be free of dependency. The continuing saga of visits to the social services and housing departments, and the home office for those people who have only been given on a temporary basis the status of asylum seekers adds to the problems of adjusting in a new country and its systems.

Perhaps the most dehumanising aspect of being a refugee or a political asylum seeker is the stigma attached to being one. The current climate in Britain and the rest of the Europe is that of equating these groups of people as undesirable individuals, who are a burden in financial and other respects and every effort should be made to keep them out.

Those that care for people need to be clear about the circumstances that make people leave their own countries and desperately seek survival elsewhere. Often these people have the courage to fight for their convictions, which many of us do not have. The children- and there are a significant number who arrive as refugees without their parents or other adults to support them- not only need support in schools but present educators with a real challenge. Personal prejudices need to be set aside so that there is at least some empathy for the traumas of these children. Most important, it is the obligation of the educators to help other children to understand the refugee children’s plights and see them, like, all the other children, with their rights and their dignity.

Sneh Shah

Educated Repatriated Women from the Former USSR and their Career

K. Deliyianni, A. Psalti, D. Sakka, & S. Ziogou

During the last decade, Greece has been gradually transformed from a traditional immigrant country into a host country for immigrants, especially from Eastern Europe and Asia. One of the most interesting group of these new immigrants is the Pontic Greeks or Pontians who come from the former Soviet Union. Pontians are Greeks from Mainland Greece who emigrated thousands of years ago. They first went to the Ionian Coast and from there to the Black Sea (Pontos), after which they are named. "They constitute, along with Jews, perhaps one of the longest surviving groups of forced migrants" (Zetter, 1991, p. 309).

Pontian communities along the Black Sea flourished without interruption during the whole of the Byzantine and Ottoman Empires. During the late 18th and 19th centuries, there was a progressive movement of Pontians from the Black Sea area to Georgia, following persecution generated by growing Turkish nationalism. From 1914 to 1924 the majority of the Pontic Greeks who lived along the Black Sea Coast took the road of Diaspora to Greece and the Soviet Union as well as the United States, the rest of Europe and Iran (Kasimati, 1992). This constitutes the first massive immigration of Pontians to Greece. Stalinism prolonged their suffering, as hundreds of thousands of Pontians were displaced to Kazakhstan, Uzbekistan, and Turkmenistan in 1949. In the 1960s and 1970s slight improvements started and small numbers of Pontians came to Greece. Up to 1980 there were less than a hundred arrivals per year, whereas in the 1980s the numbers started picking up (Kokkinos, 1991a). According to statistics from the Greek Foreign Ministry, approximately 10,000 people arrived in the period 1980-1989. Of this number, 68% migrated in 1989. In 1990, Agtzidis estimated that in the years to come approximately 15,000 more would arrive every year. This can be considered the second massive immigration of Pontians to Greece. Various reasons drove them out of their homeland: civil

wars, raids and prosecutions, and the quest for better living and working conditions.

The Pontic Greeks who migrate to Greece from the former Soviet Union are mostly young. Seventy-five percent of them are under 40 (Kokkinos, 1991a). They face significant difficulties in integration in Greece, including employment, education, and accommodation problems. They mostly speak the Pontian language, a form of Greek with many Homeric elements that cannot be easily understood by the citizens of Greece. Most have gone through nine years of primary and secondary education and their professional training is good, though often unsuitable for Greece. It is difficult, sometimes impossible, to relate the degrees they have in certain fields to degrees from Greek tertiary education institutions. Most of them settle in the urban complexes of Athens-Piraeus or Thessaloniki where there are greater opportunities of finding work (Kasimati, 1992; Kokkinos, 1991a; Kokkinos, 1991b; Vergeti, 1991).

Greece was totally unprepared to receive these great numbers of immigrants and to accommodate their needs. According to Vergeti (1991), "the specific problems of integration of Pontians rest on the fact that they constitute a refugee group that has chosen migration to a country of the same ethnic group. This is why social marginalization is perhaps more distressing than economic marginalization" (p. 393).

Migration is a turning point in the life of all immigrants, especially women, as they usually experience a double domination in their host countries by being migrants as well as females (Haritos-Fatouros & Sakka, 1984). Espin (1982) claims that migration affects women psychologically in different ways, because the psychological development of women and men is differently affected by external and internal factors. Pontian women from the former Soviet Union are no exception to this.

A research programme called "Pontian

Immigrants from the Soviet Union: Their Social and Economic Integration” was conducted in January 1991 by the Pantio University in Athens. The sample included 1850 Pontian immigrant households in Athens and in six other areas of Northern Greece where there are large numbers of Pontian immigrants (Kasimati, 1992). This was the first and only study that looked into gender differences as well. According to the researchers, more women than men are college graduates (64% versus 36% respectively) among the Pontian immigrants from the former Soviet Union. Women mainly specialize in fields such as nursing, teaching, and social work, leading to occupations consistent with the traditional roles of women in society, roles that are linked to home and family.

In terms of their employment in Greece, there is an over-representation of men; 68.2% of them work versus only 31.8% of women. However, when they resided in the Soviet Union, 52.1% of jobs were held by men and 47.9% were held by women. “It seems that the process of vocational incorporation of Pontian immigrants reflect Greek structures in such an extent that they distort the former composition of those employed in the former Soviet Union. Although the majority of the immigrant population face unemployment, women experience a more pressing exclusion from the job market. Taking into consideration the almost even representation of women in the job market in the former Soviet Union, their unemployment in Greece becomes an issue of great importance” (Kasimati, 1992, p. 232).

Another finding of this research programme was that a significant portion of the female population (23.4%) work in positions of rendering services. When these percentages are compared to those of the Greek-born population as well as to those of the sample before leaving the USSR, it can be concluded that Pontians from the former USSR are marginalized in terms of their occupation, as most women work as labourers, house cleaners and only one out of ten holds a scientific position. Also, at least 80% of the highly educated Pontians experience a complete lack of jobs relevant to their studies, as they hold jobs that are totally irrelevant to their education and with the lowest social prestige.

Kasimati and her research team (1992) concluded that “this is an issue that can be “quite painful” and with unpredictable consequences for our population on one hand; on the other hand, it is an important indicator of the loss of human resources of this population and of the inability of our society to utilize them according to their knowledge in order to make the best of them” (p. 249).

This survey, which was part of the European Community-sponsored NOW programme, makes a first attempt to address the employment issue from the perspective of the educated Pontian immigrant women. Educated women were chosen as subjects for this survey because they constitute a special group of immigrants with unique characteristics and needs. These are women who have a college degree and were employed in highly skilled and prestigious positions in the former Soviet Union. When they came to their new country, they were forced to do menial, low-prestige jobs related to housework. This is a kind of job with which they were not familiar, as somebody else was taking care of their house in their country of origin. This peculiar situation they find themselves in creates a very specific set of problems that cannot be compared to the difficulties that other migrant groups face. The aim of the survey is twofold: (a) to investigate the working conditions and the career development of those women since they came to Greece; and (b) to explore the social conditions under which they live in Greece.

Sample

The survey took place from November 1993 to February 1994. The sample consisted of 16 women, 26 to 49 years of age, who came to Greece among 1991 and 1993 (only one came in 1987). Most of them (68.8%) came from towns of more than 70,000 inhabitants. Several reasons led them to Greece, such as: war, racism, their Greek origin, personal and familial reasons as well as a combination of the aforementioned reasons. They chose Thessaloniki as their place of residency because there was a great number of Pontian friends and relatives there, because they liked the city, or because they thought that they could find job opportunities more easily.

The majority of these women (68.8%) are married and have one to two children; 31.3% live with their nuclear family. 66.7% of their spouses have a university degree but only 75% were able to find a job in Greece: in the private sector (33.3%) or as merchants (25%). All women have a college education; the most popular fields of study are education (37.5%) and medicine (37.5%). However, 13 women work in jobs unrelated to their studies and former occupation. Their monthly income ranges from unstable (45.5%) to approximately 100,000 drachmas (45.5%). The three women that have jobs relevant to their studies work as doctor, psychotherapist, and piano teacher.

The women who constitute the sample were located through a couple of Pontian Associations in Thessaloniki. The rest of them were found by the snowball method.

Methodology

Data was collected through a semi-structured interview based on a questionnaire with open and closed questions. Two pre-pilot interviews were conducted before the construction of the questionnaire. Thirteen of the interviews were recorded. The questionnaire was based on two already constructed questionnaires that had been used in other research studies on Greek emigrants from Cyprus and Germany. Role-playing and brain-storming were two others methods used for the final formulation of the questionnaire.

The questionnaire was divided into six parts: (a) general questions, (b) demographic data, (c) work and working conditions in the former USSR, (d) work and working conditions in Greece, (e) social life and relationships in Greece and in the former USSR, and (f) expectations regarding life, job, housing, and children's future.

Results: Quantitative

The majority of the interviewees (66.7%) stated that their life changed dramatically since their coming to Greece; they did not evaluate this change as being positive or negative. 62.5% of the sample considered the financial problems and the unemployment as the most important difficulties they faced.. When they were asked which of their problems would be soon solved,

half of the women responded the job problem, whereas the other half stated that they did not believe that any of their problems would be solved soon.

One of the most interesting parts of this survey was the comparison of work and working conditions between the former USSR and Greece.

All 16 women of the sample were employed in their country of origin and held jobs that were related to their field of study. The types of occupation they held included: medicine (37.5%), education (31.3%), financial/paramedical occupations(18.8%), and sciences (12.5%). In Greece, all women work, but only three (18.75%) hold a job related to their education. The rest work in the following occupations: house cleaning (37.5%), domestic help (25%), and other, such as: bakery employee, sewer (18.8%).

In the former Soviet Union, 87.5% of the sample had a full-time job and 62.5% stated that they earned enough money from their job. 50% had other sources of income (e.g., fields, support from parents and relatives). All had medical insurance in their job. However, in Greece the monthly income ranges from 15,000 drachmas to 100,000 drachmas for 68.8% of those women.. 93.8% stated that the money they earn is very little to enough. 37.5% said that they have a part-time job, whereas 31.3% work 8 hours/day. 81.3% do not have any medical insurance in their job. Before coming to Greece, 50% were prepared for the difficulties that they were about to experience, whereas 50% expected things to be better.

Job satisfaction was another issue that was explored. While in their country of origin, 93.8% stated that they were quite to very satisfied with their job. None was unhappy with her former occupation. However, in Greece, 37.5% (more than one out of three) reported dissatisfaction with their current job and 56.3% would like to have a job relevant to their studies. Various reasons were offered for having the current job: financial (37.5%), language/validation of their degree by the Greek government (31.3%), Greek examination system (18.8%), liking (6.3%), and other reasons (6.3%). 28.6% stated that they did not expect the problem to be solved, whereas 14.3 % were optimistic.

The majority of these women have been quite proactive in their effort to find a job relevant to their education. 50% attended Greek language courses or had their degrees validated by the Greek government or they had done both. 42.9% either continued their efforts or had given up trying for the moment. When they were asked about what they were planning to do to resolve this issue, 33.3% stated that they would take the exams required to get the work permit or try to validate their degree, 33.3% said that they would continue to try, wait for a while, or change jobs (33.3%), whereas 20% reported disappointment and/or uncertainty.

Another interesting finding included the effects of the fact that these women have an occupation that is unrelated to their studies and expertise. The results indicated that 62.5% of the sample considered it a very serious problem, whereas 25% stated that the important thing was that they actually had a job. For 62.5%, this issue affected them psychologically and resulted in them being in a bad emotional state. 12.5% said that it made them feel as if they are not human beings any more. It is very fortunate that all the women reported that their families are very understanding of the problem and are extremely supportive of them and their efforts to find a more suitable job.

The survey also looked into the familial and social life of the repatriated educated women from the former USSR. With regard to free time, 68.8% said that they have no or little free time; 33.3% manage work and home alone, whereas 26.7% are being helped by family members or relatives and friends. Their leisure activities included staying at home (40%), and entertainment and social contacts (26.7%). The situation was much better in the former USSR. 68.8% had more free time when they lived there than they had in Greece. Their leisure activities in their country of origin included: cultural activities, social visits & walks (46.7%), and entertainment (20%). Only 13.3% stayed at home.

Developing social relationships did not appear to be a problem for our sample, as 87.5% stated that they meet with other Pontians, 87.5% made friends with the local population, and 68.8% had good relations with their neighbours and never

had problems with them. With regard to life satisfaction, 43.8% were a little satisfied with life in Greece and 31.3% were quite satisfied; 87.5% were not satisfied or were a little satisfied with the housing situation; 40% were quite satisfied with the experiences that their children had in Greece; and 66.7% were quite satisfied with the social relations that they had developed.

Their expectations about the future were also looked into. 62.5% were optimistic about their future; 31.3% hoped that they would find a job relevant to their studies, whereas 6.3% had no hopes for the future. 50% hoped that they would be able to buy their own apartment or house. 81.8% hoped that their children would be better off than they were at present (e.g., better jobs, studies). 90% hoped that their relations would continue to be as good as they currently were.

Qualitative Results and Discussion: “Giving Voice to the Findings”

The results of this survey, despite its limited scope, describe in a dramatic way the situation that Pontian immigrant women from the former USSR find themselves into when they arrive and settle in Greece. The results revolve around five major themes: dramatic changes, job situation, leisure time, and future expectations.

(a) Dramatic changes. For the majority of the Pontian immigrant women, coming to Greece signaled the beginning of a new life, completely different from the one they had in their country of origin. “They grew up with a minority mentality in an Asiatic society closer to the 19th than the 20th century, and suffered an identity crisis. Then came the nationalistic upheavals and finally the homecoming to the very different country that Greece is for them. Their initial happiness was gradually displaced by a sense of insecurity about the future. Everything - language, work, and the very nature of society - was alien when in their hearts they had expected to find paradise” (Kokkinos, 1991, p. 396).

Dramatic changes took place in almost every aspect of their life. The changes included: change of living conditions and adjustment to a new culture; financial difficulties; and work problems. Most of their statements spoke about the many problems they faced as soon as they set foot in

Greece: "My life changed very much. In the USSR, things were different. I was educated, I had a job as a teacher. I had everything that I dreamt of... Then the problems began and we had to return to our homeland." "There I was like everybody else. My life changed here, my interests changed. Being Greek is a very good thing there." "I did not know the language and I did not have a job. This bothered me a lot then." "When I first arrived, I felt I was inferior. When you start to work, everything changes." Others talked more about the positive side of the change: "I am not scared anymore. I feel safe. My child is not threatened anymore; I'm not afraid that they might steal my child from me."

Financial difficulties and unemployment as well as language problems were difficulties that they experienced both at their arrival in Greece and at present. The adjustment problems of the first months in the new country were intensified and took the form of personal and familial problems. One woman talked about her sick child: "Things are still tough. We cannot make it on our own and the government doesn't help us at all." Another wanted to bring her mother to Greece. Uncertainty for the future was added to the present difficulties, perhaps because their plans and expectations were not fulfilled. Half of the women in our sample expected things to be better in Greece. "I don't know what I'm going to do tomorrow. I'm not going to have this job forever." "I don't know what to do. Leave or stay? This is called despair. For me it would be enough if I could do my job (dentist). I could even rent an apartment. I have no hope that I'll be able to work someday."

(b) Job situation. Work is a major problem for the Pontian immigrant women. All of them hold a university degree, but only a small percentage was able to find a job relevant to her education. All of them had jobs related to their studies when they resided in the former Soviet Union. They express their disappointment regarding the lack of suitable positions for them in Greece: "I didn't know how things were here (Greece). For example, in terms of hiring; I could find a job easily there (Soviet Union), because there were not many doctors." "It's worse than I expected; I mean, in terms of employment. I couldn't

imagine that there were so many doctors and so few positions. I didn't know that. I tried hard to validate my degree. It took me one year and eight months to get certification for my specialty. Very few people have done that." "Before I came, I thought that things would be different, that there were jobs. It didn't cross my mind that I could come to Greece and look for an inferior job, cleaning. This is a great shame for me." "We had a different view of Greece, from the story of Alexander the Great. We expected a lot from Greece. Things are very tight here."

With regard to job satisfaction, the majority of them reported that they were satisfied with the job they had in the former USSR, whereas only a small percentage reported the same about work in Greece. As one woman stated: "What kind of satisfaction can I get from cleaning stairs?" Despite their disappointment, these women have not been inactive. They have put forward a great effort to better their work situation, either by validating their diplomas, taking Greek courses, or studying for the exams. Most of them rely exclusively on themselves: "I rely exclusively on myself. The government can help a little but they show no interest." "I do whatever I can. I work as a cleaning lady, I attend Greek language courses and I study for the exams for the validation of my degree." "We have a plan. Until spring, we'll learn the language and wait. Then we'll take the exams and wait to see... If we don't pass the exams, we'll take them again and again until... We must have patience."

There were also those who did not think that their work problem was ever going to be solved: "No, I don't think that my employment problem will be solved. My brother is older, he has validated his degree, he knows the language, but he cannot find a job. I don't think I'll find a job." "I have validated and translated my diploma and now I can work in a school or a conservatory. The problem is that they are going to hire people that they already know. Nobody is going to hire me because I know nobody and because there are not many positions available..." "I have done nothing so far... I see my brother; he tried everything and still hasn't achieved anything. He's smarter than me and has worked for many years. I think that if he, a man, cannot make it, then

what should I expect?"

Most of these women appear obsessed with the validation of their university degrees and invest all their effort and time in this, without attempting to look for alternative routes to better their job situation. Finding a suitable job takes precedence before everything else. Krau (1984) claims that of all the problems immigrants face after they have arrived in their new host country, the vocational one occupies the first place in order of importance, and it is in this area that the immigrant meets the greatest frustration in his/her endeavor to settle down in a satisfactory occupational status. Immigrants cope with this problem in a double-faceted behavior pattern, the first facet being their high work commitment. The high work commitment helps them to obtain a socioeconomic situation to justify the migration. The importance of work is capital and immediate. It is the only tool with which to realize aspirations and to achieve "greater health and maturity" (Krau, 1982).

However, "work commitment in itself does not solve the psychological side of the problem facing the immigrant, the ego-threatening situation of social descent and the accompanying cognitive dissonance over past and present incongruence. The situation leads to contradictory attitudes toward oneself on the basis of past and present social perception. A state of conflict arises which is a potential source of tension and anxiety" (Krau, 1984, p. 337). Consequently, it can be said that the inability of the women in our sample to find a job relevant to their qualifications and work experience affects them psychologically. They consider the jobs that they hold now degrading for them. Some of their comments were: "It kills me." "At night, I dream of little children, of my job. And this is just a dream for me. It bothers me a lot." "Sometimes I feel lousy, like a person with no arms and legs. I came to Greece and I have neither arms nor legs." "I miss my job." "It's very hard when you know something and they don't let you do it. And you know that if you could do it, it would be better not only for you but for others as well." "You forget what you've learned." "It's tragic." "It's the worst thing that could happen to me. It affects me psychologically."

(c) Leisure time. Leisure time and activities are more limited in Greece than they were in the former Soviet Union. This can also affect negatively the psychological state of the Pontian immigrant women. Most of the women stay at home, either because they are too tired or cannot afford to entertain themselves. "I'm taking care of my family. I'm usually so tired after work that I don't have the courage to do anything else." "I stay home, I visit my friends and they visit me, or I go out. Most of all, I prefer to stay home; I miss it." "What else? I read, I read a lot. I like it. I used to listen to classical music, go to the theatre. I can't do this here. It's too expensive for me." They miss all the opportunities that they had in their country of origin: "I used to go to the swimming pool. I miss it a lot. I had friends; we paid visits to each other." "I travelled a lot, I read books, I went to the theatre and to the cinema."

(d) Future expectations. One in four women of our sample has no hopes for the future or is disappointed regarding her planning to do something about her job situation: "I don't think I'll make it on my own. Somebody must help me." However, there seem to be some balancing factors, such as social relations, and expectations for the future of their children. Some of their comments included: "I want to find a better job for my children, to offer them a good education. That's my goal." "I would like my son to study something and my daughter to learn a trade." These balancing factors may partly explain the large percentage of women who reported optimism for their future. It appears that the transfer of the Pontian immigrant women's interest in social relations and in their children functions as a coping mechanism which is characteristic of women. Men may have a harder time handling their job situation, because they do not usually transfer their interest in other aspects of life. Research indicates that immigrant men consider their vocational and financial objectives more important and are more interested in their vocational future. On the other hand, immigrant women show a greater interest in their future in terms of family relations (Lamm et al., 1976; Trommsdorff et al., 1982 in Figgou, 1994).

Overall, educated Pontian women from the former Soviet Union face a variety of difficulties after their arrival in Greece, difficulties that continue to exist, often in different forms, several months or even years after they have settled down in their new country. The work problem seems to hold a pivotal place among their problems. All their efforts and energy are expended in the finding of a job relevant to their education and previous work experience. The lack of suitable job positions has taken its toll, as it has affected their psychological state negatively and has inflicted upon them a pessimistic outlook of the future. To cope with this problem, they have not lowered their expectations regarding their future vocational situation, as some studies claim (Krau, 1984). Instead, they transferred their interest in their social relations with friends and neighbours and in the better future of their children.

The difficulties that the women in our sample experience are quite unique and cannot be compared with the difficulties of other immigrant women who followed their husbands or relatives to one of the traditional host countries. The later immigrant women came from rural backgrounds and settled in big cities. They lacked the appropriate job skills and had limited education. Consequently, they most frequently did the dirtiest, least skilled, menial jobs. Migration was a turning point in their lives because for the first time they were employed outside of their house. Their position was unequal to that of local female workers or even to that of male migrant workers because cultural conditions and role stereotypes were totally different in their country of origin (Haritos-Fatouros & Sakka, 1984). In this survey, we are dealing with a population of women who come from large urban centres. They are women who have a college education and have worked for several years in occupations, such as doctors and teachers. After their arrival in Greece they find themselves in low-prestige job positions which has a negative impact on their self-image. It is not clear from this survey whether cultural conditions and role stereotypes in their country of origin have affected their situation in their new country. Future studies can compare the difficulties of male and female Pontian immigrants to determine their differences and identify the

unique needs, if any, by gender. Furthermore, large-scale studies of this specific population should be conducted to look into the differences between educated and non-educated Pontian immigrant women, the development of a minority identity and the specific psychological problems that these women experience, the impact of their time in Greece on the resolution of their problems and on the adjustment process, etc.

Another limitation of the study is the small sample (N=16) that does not allow us to generalize the findings and to draw general conclusions regarding the characteristics and the situation of the educated Pontian immigrant women. This was only a pilot-study with a limited scope that only "scratched the surface" of the issue. The findings of this pilot-study will be used in a large-scale study that will attempt to address more profound issues and not just record information and characteristics. Using an improved questionnaire and focus groups, the research team will explore the specific experiences of the educated Pontian immigrant women in Greece and their expectations for the future.

After the specific characteristics and needs of the Pontian immigrant women have been recorded, described, and analyzed, specific recommendations can be made on the most effective ways to address their needs and to help them integrate in the Greek society by utilizing their qualifications and work experiences.

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Uprootment and Economic Success - Case study of Sindhis in India

Subhadra Anand

The Sindhis of India have had their roots in Sind, now in Pakistan. On the eve of the partition of India in 1947 the Muslim Hindu population ratio was 76/24. Even though the minority Hindu community had lived in peace and harmony with the majority Muslim community, the political situation and the influx of migrant Muslims from India created so much tension and insecurity that the Sindhi Hindus had no option but to leave the land of their birth.

The Sindhis thus overnight became refugees, a tag that was to cause them a lot of anguish and humiliation and led to change in their psyche and outlook. Like all victims of uprootment their first priority was economic rehabilitation so that they could be saved the trauma of having to accept doles from government and other charitable organizations. They were willing to tread unknown paths, undertake unforeseen risks and face unsurmountable challenges, for they had only one goal in mind - to earn their self respect through economic prosperity.

In this process Sindhis underwent a personality change whereby their priorities shifted and monetary benefits became of utmost importance.

Struggle for survival made them hardened money-minded citizens whose new culture was "to make money". In their quest for money Sindhis were willing to make any kind of adjustment, take any risk. After being uprooted their only desire was to rebuild their life and in the course of building a monument of success through large business empires they broke an edifice which was connected with their roots - their culture. When asked why the Sindhis have become so money-minded a Sindhi had a logical explanation. He said,

When we left Sind, we left all the privileges which naturally came by belonging to a region. But when we realised we had no region we decided to create security by making money. At least with money you can buy power, people and status.

(Source: a personal interview with a prominent Sindhi intellectual)

The willingness to start anew was noted years ago in studies of natural disaster victims in America, but at that time it was thought to be a uniquely American characteristic symbolising the American view of "luck". Closely related to the

feeling of having been lucky to escape death is the readiness to start all over again. Instead of brooding about their losses people turn their minds to getting life reorganised¹. It is a known fact that all those who have gone through natural or human made disasters have rebuilt their lives with greater gusto than before. Stephen Keller (1975) has a similar analysis for the Punjabi refugees which he attributes to a sense of invulnerability.

It is precisely having undergone the extreme suffering that generates the sense of invulnerability that in its initial form is manifested by a strong desire to start all over again. To exercise this sense he pushes on the unwritten constraints of his culture and society. Where others dare not tread he strides fearlessly.²

Keller further quotes a Punjabi refugee who echoes the feeling of a Sindhi refugee:

We have been through so much, what more can happen to us? No one can do anything to us that can be more terrible than has already occurred. Why should we be afraid? Once everything was taken from us and we have come back from our pennilessness to prosperity. If we lost it all again we could do it once more”.³

This sense of invulnerability gives them a strange sense of confidence - whereby they feel they have the ability to make money under any circumstances. This gives them only one direction - i.e. toward making more and more money to prove how, in spite of being penniless they have become prosperous.

Keller's study on Punjabi refugees further shows how there is a distinct improvement in the area inhabited by the Punjabi refugees. The green revolution in Punjab is attributed to the refugee Punjabi farmer. Similarly, Horace Alexander, in his "New Citizen of India", has shown how the areas inhabited by the refugees have become prosperous, whether it be the green belt of Punjab - Haryana, or the industrial town of Faridabad or the township of Ulhasnagar or Chandipur Village in Bengal, the refugees, by their sheer dint of hard work and risk taking spirit have transformed underdeveloped lands into prosperous towns with lucrative industrial and agricultural developments.

the Punjab-Haryana region which was also industrially backward at the time of partition,

showed a remarkable development within a mere twenty years. Many authors have recognised the refugees as being in the vanguard of the "modernisation" process and a few have conducted empirical studies that suggest that it was the economic aggressiveness of the refugees that account for their rapid recovery at least in the area of trade and commerce⁴. The Sindhis are a prime example of this category. Their business acumen has not only made them spread a network of business concerns in India, but also in all parts of the world.

Kusum Nair (1961) in her book "Blossoms in the Dust" concludes that those who are "more uprooted" are comparatively more receptive to new ideas, more ambitious and are more hardworking⁵. Keller, however, is critical of the terms "more uprooted" and "less uprooted". But there does seem some logic in Nair's analysis especially when we apply it to the Sindhis. Sindhis can be said to be "most uprooted" since the Punjabis and Bengalis were rehabilitated in areas which were contiguous to their homeland, and this made them familiar with the geographical, cultural and linguistic ethos of those areas. The Sindhis, on the other hand, were so hopelessly uprooted that they were scattered not only in all parts of India but throughout the world. The less familiar they are with the area, the greater is the challenge that they accept. This has brought out a business "killer instinct" in them.

Keller however, does agree with Nair's recognition of social and psychological factors interacting to determine whether a community will modernise or not. He further goes on to analyse the reasons for refugee progressiveness. He bases his analysis once again on the Punjab-Haryana refugee. This analysis can safely be stretched to include Sindhi refugees. What then accounts for refugee progressiveness? As with aggressiveness, "progressiveness" is a diffused term embodying a number of possible configuration of attitudes, sentiments and values. These particular attributes appear significant in all refugees. First, is the view that change, far from being threatening was likely to be a beneficial thing for the individual and society. This is different from the fearful and conservative attitude of people a traditional society under

stable conditions. Secondly and this is most important for industrial and commercial groups, there are a number of attitudes which are termed collectively as the synergistic outlook. The tone of these attitudes was that competition was a good thing and that one could trust others in business dealings. Conflict was not inherent in economic transactions but rather that each party shared an interest in the favourable outcome for both parties. This view is very different from the traditional view of life where whenever one person gains, the other loses. The third and the most important difference between the refugee and non-refugee is the way they approach situations in which risk is involved. Probably because of the sense of invulnerability the refugees are more willing to do new things, or do old things in a new way. They are more geographically mobile, occupationally adventurous and are likely to adopt innovations sooner than non-refugees.

Keller applied these three attributes to the Punjab-Haryana refugee and came to the conclusion that uprootment was the cause of their subsequent progress, as well as risk taking and being daring in new venture. This is also true of Sindhi refugees. As far as the first attribute is concerned i.e. change benefiting the society and the refugee, it can be said that Sindhis emerged stronger after uprootment because their need for survival made them surmount all hurdles. Society has also benefitted from them because the Sindhis have spread a network of educational institutions, hospitals and other charitable trusts, besides contributing to economic development and providing employment to the local population in Sindhi business ventures.

Regarding the second point of a syncretic outlook initially the Sindhis were regarded with suspicion and still are to some extent by other communities.

In their anxiety to show the world how well they have done for themselves, the Sindhis have been displaying their rich status in loud, crude and ostentatious ways. This has caused extreme irritation and resentment among others and has in no way helped reduce the level of prejudices. The Sindhis are also perceived as unscrupulous in business because it is believed that they will

resort to any means to make money.

Prejudice can be described as an emotional, rigid, attitude towards a group of people. They may be a group only in the mind of the prejudiced person, that they categorise them together, although they may have little similarity or interaction. The prejudiced person becomes a victim of generalisation. If they find one Sindhi who has got the better of him in business they slot all Sindhis as cheats. A prejudiced person selects some facts for emphasis and becomes blind to other facts. So, whenever Sindhis have to be depicted in films or television serials, they are shown as money-minded, callous individuals, with a strange way of talking. Never is a Sindhi depicted in any other way.

New experiences fit into the old categories by selecting only those cues which harmonize with the prejudgement or stereotypes. This does not help in creating a better understanding between the majority and the minority. Everywhere, whether they are in Ulhasnagar, Bombay, Udaipur, Ahmedabad, Delhi, Indore and elsewhere, the Sindhis have been bracketed into one category. Exceptions to this category are not taken into consideration, only those instances where the prejudgement is proved correct are given weightage. So, if a Sindhi has not been shrewd in business and shown a relative uncaring attitude for money he is described as “un-Sindhi like”. So to be a Sindhi is to be an individual to whom money is most important. Friends and associates warn each other to be careful in dealing with a Sindhi in business. Many even scornfully say, “if you come across a snake and a Sindhi, trust the snake”.

Vickery and Apler (1948) point out that prejudice involves not only prejudgement but misjudgement as well. It is categorical thinking that systematically misinterprets the facts. They go on to state that not all misjudgement is prejudice. Prejudice is a misjudgement of the members of a supposed human group, it is socially oriented action. One may misjudge the speed of an approaching car, but one is anxious to correct the error. Prejudice is a misjudgement that one defends.⁶

Justice Nair (1975) in an article in “The Illustrated Weekly of India” on Sindhi Hindus has

cautioned Sindhis from being termed as 'Ugly Sindhis' and has advised them to have less conspicuous ways so that they do not get on the wrong side of anyone. The obvious analogy with the 'Ugly American' is due to the fact that like the American, the Sindhis are also behaving in a manner whereby they think they can buy everything with money. The American behaviour is understandable because they have a complex about their lack of history and culture. Today, even they are looking into their culture and infant history of two hundred years and highlighting the lives of their ancestors. The Sindhis on the other hand have a culture which is thousands of years old and with such a rich heritage they have no need to prove themselves. Instead Sindhis must look into their history and culture and derive inspiration from it instead of abandoning it for materialism, an attitude which is disliked by everyone.

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An Investigation into the Ways in which Children, aged 9-11 Make Sense of the World through a Community of Inquiry.

Susan Lyle

Primary children are usually fascinated by the world, both in their immediate experience and beyond. They are also eager to talk and learn about the lives and lifestyles, beliefs and values, of people with whom they have little direct contact. The world beyond their direct experience is increasingly part of the lives of all children in our society because they live in a world where different ways of everyday life, differing ideas and beliefs, are communicated to them through the media. If they are to make sense of these things they need to think and to talk about them. Teachers need to provide opportunities to help children develop skills which will help them take part in discussion, debate and argument about the world. The importance of talk has been emphasised by Corson(1988:8):

"There has gradually developed a greater readiness to examine all kinds of issues in talk and to subject even our most firmly held views, prejudices and dogmas to criticism in language... Habermas believes that the problems of legitimacy that many Western social institutions face at present largely derive from a widespread failure to employ this critical discourse."

This article is based on whole classes of children engaged in discussion following the performance of MOVING! an educational theatrical performance

which explores through drama and mime, the true story of Nên and Tuê, two children who arrive in Britain as refugees from the war in Vietnam. The story was commissioned by Save the Children Fund (UK)¹ to reflect its work with, and concern for refugees worldwide. Refugees were to be the SCF theme for 1993, the UN Year of Repatriation. Small World Theatre² were engaged to create a drama that would draw out universal questions of human rights, the rights of the child, justice, security and the ability or inability to have power over one's own destiny. Looked at from the point of view of the child these questions affect every child whatever their circumstances. By focussing on the journey of two refugee children it would be possible to create an empathy with the children who are outsiders coming into a new situation, someone who has no choice but to leave familiar surroundings and adapt to new ones.

Research for the story was sponsored by the Nuffield Foundation and took place with Vietnamese communities in London, Vietnam and Hong Kong. Contact was made through project which had support from SCF. MOVING! subsequently toured schools throughout the UK. As a follow-up to the performance notes were written for teachers to provide them with

guidance to run whole class discussions with children. (Lyle, 1995). The classroom strategies used to generate these discussions and the discussion themselves are the focus of this paper.

Classroom Strategies: the Community of Inquiry

The transcripts to be examined, were generated by whole classes of children engaged in a Community of Inquiry. The teaching strategies used have their roots in Lipman et al's (1980) Philosophy for Children programme. Currently in use in more than thirty countries of the world, it was originally developed by Matthew Lipman in the United States. Lipman believed that serious thought, helped by serious discussion, is the only way in which either children or adults can hope to relieve the stress of confusion in a changing, pluralistic society. The stimuli for such discussion are specially written stories designed to help children think about the ideas which lie beneath the stories and to share and discuss these issues together. The methods of working can be located in the Socratic tradition, which values dialogue as an aid to critical thinking. Corson (1988:8) commenting on the importance of critical dialogue commends its value to the growth of knowledge:

"...out of our ever-growing engagement in critical discussion vast advances in knowledge have accrued: through this critical process the link between language and the growth of knowledge has become an increasingly dynamic one."

Lipman (1988) requires us to value what he describes as caring and creative thinking as well as critical thinking. This involves treating the children's views with respect. Through dialogue children learn how to argue rationally as they try to deepen their approach to, and understanding of, issues that they themselves raise through their own inquiry.

If children are to actively construct their own understanding, the teacher needs to pay close attention to what children say and respond to this. Lipman's approach, coming out of Socratic dialogue, sees development and understanding best achieved in dialogue, not only between the teacher and the taught, but within a wider group or community of learners, mutually interacting and developing together. Lipman (1988:203) claims:

"...when people engage in dialogue with one another, they are compelled to reflect, to concentrate, to consider alternatives, to listen closely, to give careful attention to definitions and meanings, to recognise previously unthought of options, and in general to perform a vast number of mental activities that they might not have engaged in had the conversation never occurred."

The COI gives children practice in formulating their thoughts in public. The transcripts show children creating thoughts and ideas through the dialogue; while they are talking they actually create new ideas and restructure what they already know.

Classroom Contexts

A research project was set up to record the discussions of nine classes of years 5 and 6 children in one rural, one semi-rural, three suburban and four inner city schools engaged in communities of inquiry following the performance. Video recordings were made in four schools, audio recordings in one school and notes taken during the discussions in four schools. The audio and video recordings were subsequently transcribed and analysed.

The settings chosen were intended to include a cross section of different socio-economic groups and classes in a variety of settings. Analysis of the data showed that these categories did not provide a dividing line between children as we may have expected. Although the experiences of children from different social backgrounds are different, their responses to the story have areas of commonality. It would seem that, in this study at least, different socio-economic backgrounds or variables across class and race are not as influential as may have been thought.

Preparation for a Community of Inquiry

The performance tells the story of two children and their family over a 10 year period. It begins in Vietnam and depicts village life before the war and the impact of the war on the family. After their village was bombed, the family (except the grandfather who refuses to leave) flee to the coast. On the way the father is arrested and on arrival at the coast the mother only has enough money to pay for the children to travel on the boat. The children are forced to leave their mother behind and join a group of Vietnamese 'boat people' on their journey to Hong Kong. The play follows the experiences of the children on the boat and subsequently in the refugee camp in Hong Kong. After two and half years in the camp the children receive papers from the UN giving them permission to settle in the UK. The story follows the children's journey by aeroplane to Britain, their experience trying to enter the UK through immigration, and finally their experience in school.

Following the performance the children are given individual thinking time to consider what they found puzzling, surprising or interesting about it. They are given a few minutes to write down as many ideas as possible. Next they are asked to work with a partner to share their ideas and between them agree on one

idea which they would like to talk about with the whole class. They are told the idea should be problematic in some way and expressed as a question. The children are then put in groups of four to consider their questions and asked to agree on one question between them which they will present to the whole class.

Each group's agreed question is written on the board or flip chart with the names of the children in brackets after the question. When all the questions are written up each one is read out loud, one at a time and the group who had formulated the question say what discussion they thought the question would stimulate. The other groups can ask questions to help clarify the meaning of each of the questions. Finally after the questions have been thoroughly discussed the children are invited to choose which question to discuss. The question is chosen democratically by a 'hands up' vote with all eyes shut to make sure the vote is secret.

Once a question for discussion has been chosen the teacher invites the group which had formulated the question to begin the inquiry. The children sit in a circle as far away from any distractions as possible so that all the children are able to see and hear each other. The process of arriving at a question for discussion in this way is very important: it gives every child a voice and everyone a say in choosing the question. During the discussion it is the children who control its direction, they decide what to talk about and how.

The role of the teacher is one of a facilitator. Teachers are asked to follow simple ground rules to ensure that only one child speaks at a time, that children genuinely respond to what each other say - rather than following their own agenda - to ensure that the understanding which develops is a group process. The teacher doesn't interfere with the content, only the form of the discussion. Questions are restricted to those which try to help the children produce clear explanations, to consider problems more carefully and to make the children more rigorous and analytical in their thinking. Children are asked to give reasons for their answers, to provide examples to illustrate their ideas, to think through the assumptions behind their statements and through to the implications of what they say. Disagreement between the children can focus an area for inquiry and it is up to the teacher to manage this disagreement by encouraging the children to dig deeper in their thinking; in this way the discussion between the children develops its own dynamic.

The questions chosen

For the purpose of this paper questions from an inner city school in Manchester, from a suburban school in Swansea and from a rural village school in Dyfed have been analysed. A total of 95 questions were generated by children in three classes. The questions were analysed according to whether they were questions about feelings or actions: 55 were to do with feelings and 40 to do with actions. Secondly the content of the questions analysed divided into two main types: questions to do with Nên and Tuê's family, and questions to do with the different places the children lived: Vietnam, the boat to Hong Kong, the refugee camp in Hong Kong, and Britain.

There were 48 questions about Nên and Tuê's family; these can be divided into questions about the grandfather (11) about the mother (14) about the father (13) about both parents (10). Many of the questions about family are also related to place. 27 were to do with feelings and 21 with actions. For example Why did the grandfather stay behind?

There were 49 questions in the category of place questions and these can be divided into questions to do with Vietnam (14); the boat and experiences on the boat (10); experiences in the camp in Hong Kong (6); about the journey and entry to Britain and subsequent experiences in Britain (17). 20 of the questions were to do with feelings and 29 with action. For example, How did Nên and Tuê feel when they were bullied in school in London? Why did the pirates take girls from the boat? Many of the family questions were also to do with the time the children were in Vietnam, or imagining what it would be like for their family remaining in Vietnam: Did Nên and Tuê really want to leave Vietnam?

The questions asked by the different kinds of schools about family and place were very similar, with similar numbers of questions being asked in each category in each school. The differences came with questions on place. None of the children in the rural or suburban school asked any questions about Vietnam. The inner city school with over 70 per cent of the children from ethnic minority groups, including a number of refugee children asked 14 questions about Vietnam. Eight of these questions were about the war, why it happened (5), and how the children felt when they had to leave (3). This would perhaps reflect the direct and vicarious experiences of war and of being a refugee.

“The children locate the events dramatised in the story in a context which helps them to make sense of it and co-create a story.”

Questions chosen for discussion.

The questions chosen for discussion may also reflect the children's direct experiences. The inner city school with children from a refugee background chose to discuss the following question:

Was it right for immigration to send people back when they could be in danger or get killed?

The question chosen in the suburban school was:

How did Nê'n's mother feel when she had to leave her children at such a young age?

The question chosen in the rural village school was:

How did Nê'n and Tuê feel without their parents?

Methods of recording the dialogues were chosen which were felt to be least intrusive to the children. In the inner city school the children did not know the facilitators and it was felt that any visible method of recording would have been too distracting or intrusive and influence the discussion. Small World Theatre

facilitated the inquiry and made notes during and after the discussion. They were subsequently interviewed and the interview transcribed. In the suburban school the class teacher regularly uses a tape recorder to record the children's talk. The COI was jointly facilitated by the class teacher and the researcher. An audio recording was made of the discussion and transcribed. In the rural village school the researcher regularly uses a video recorder to collect data for analysis. The COI was run by the researcher with the support of Small World Theatre. A video recording was made and subsequently transcribed.

Analysis of Transcript

Teachers and parents reading the children's dialogues were immediately drawn in, they wanted to ask questions, to find out more about the children and their lives, to engage in dialogue with them. In presenting the data in transcript form, one of the aims of is to create an inner dialogue within the reader, as s/he mentally converses with the children who are talking. The intention is to invite adults to question assumptions which they may make about what children know, and are capable of thinking about. The intention of the research was to use a method of data collection which would give children the opportunity to talk about sensitive and important issues to help us all understand better what goes on in children's minds.

The children locate the events dramatised in the story in a context which helps them to make sense of it and co-create a story about what is going in the lives of Nê'n and Tuê and their family outside the given

narrative. They consider the events of the story and attend to its detail by questioning and interpreting the actions, and speculating about the feelings of the main characters. In the process they discuss and comment on their behaviour.

The dialogue reflects the children's ability to understand the feeling states of others, and to show interest in their lives and activities. The children struggle to make sense out of events and actions by attending to the relationships between the main characters and their behaviour. They examine causes, motives, feelings and consequences. We see them

“What we see here is children creating narrative beyond the story to increase their understanding of events and actions. Through their dialogue the children co-construct meaning.”

making order by ‘filling in’ the gaps in the story. Through the COI the children don't simply see the ‘black and white’ issues, they examine the ‘grey areas’. They look for meaning by drawing on their own experiences of life, both actual and vicarious. They seem to engage in the extension of the narrative to provide order to

events of which they have no direct experience. The value of story in helping children understand the world has long been recognised. As Richardson et al (1992: P.25) reminds us:

“Stories often contain tales of injustice. Different peoples’ stories help children experience ambiguities, contradictions and tensions, and to live with them, than to try either to solve them or to avoid them.”

What we see here is children creating narrative beyond the story to increase their understanding of events and actions. Through their dialogue the children co-construct meaning. The children put forward ideas and collaborate to develop and extend them until they come to some kind of agreement. Each child's contribution draws on, extends and develops the joint understanding of the class as throughout the discussion they negotiate meaning together. The children are able to switch speaker and listener roles and to pay attention to the effect of what they have said on their listeners.

Lipman's work on developing children's ‘thinking skills’ encourages teachers to help children produce clear explanations, to share ideas and to argue rationally about possible solutions to problems. In the dialogues the contributions of the teacher and researcher are significant. They help the children work towards an agreed understanding of the feelings or actions of the characters by posing relevant questions, drawing together or summarising parts of the discussion or asking for clarification of ideas.

The teacher avoids putting forward personal views and tries instead to help the children make sense of a situation which is remote from their own lives.

Through language they create an understanding by relating it to universal experiences of human feelings which the children have experienced vicariously, largely in narrative forms. This highlights the importance of the dialectic between the child's own thinking and her/his immediate social world which is developed through language and the development of shared concepts. This would seem to support the Vygotskian (1962) principal that concepts are first acquired by the child 'externally' in dialogue, and later become internalised to elaborate and differentiate thought. As Bruner (1987) reminds us, the stages of children's' cognitive growth develop within the framework of social representations and symbols - the Vygotskian dialectic between the social world and individual development. The role of the teacher is to sensitively help the children make sense of the ideas which they have raised themselves. As Jenkins (1988: 13-15) has put it:

"Dialogue... is the externalisation of thinking, and thinking is the internalisation of dialogue."

Conclusions

There is no doubt that the children's cognitive skills developed through the COI. They were giving and asking for good reasons, providing examples to support their ideas and counter examples. They inferred consequences, defined concepts, sought clarification, voiced implications, perceived relationships, offered alternatives and built on the contributions of others. They learnt that knowledge is always open to revision. At the same time their social skills developed, they showed a willingness to support one another by expanding and supporting each other's ideas, but were not afraid to submit views to critical enquiry. They took one another's ideas seriously, they empathised with other's views and generally took care of each other throughout the inquiry. Development is therefore both cognitive and social and brings together those two research areas.

The stimulus for the classroom dialogues analysed here was a dramatised real-life story. Hardy (1986) has described narrative as the 'primary act of mind'. She believes that 'narrative itself is a cognitive resource - a meaning-making strategy'. The extracts cited in this paper offer an insight into the educational power of narrative to engage children's interest in the lives and experiences of others. Once engaged, the process of the COI helps children deepen their understanding as they attend to, interpret and extend the narrative beyond the given story and construct their understanding through dialogue. The children create new thoughts as a direct result of the dynamic process of inquiry itself, and help each other by

building upon each other's ideas. The teacher encourages the children to stay with the dialogue, to expand and develop it, to go where the dialogue leads.

Mercer, (1995:60) reminds us that all the evidence from research tells us that, in most classrooms, the range of opportunities for learners to contribute to talk is quite narrow and the amount of talk they contribute relatively small, and yet:

"...education ought to be a means for helping learners develop ways of using language as a social mode of thinking."

The research reported here has implications for classroom practice where teachers with 30+ children are trying to provide opportunities for children to engage in talk for learning, and to scaffold children's social, cognitive and moral development. The Community of Inquiry as described in this paper highlights the role of dialogue in the construction of knowledge, both individually and collectively, as children use language to transform vicarious experience into knowledge and understanding of the world.

What is missing from much research on children's development has been the voices of children themselves. In this study the voices of children are clearly heard. In the transcript extracts examined in this paper. There was evidence that children can engage in ethical enquiry and make judgments based on ethical considerations which have arisen from the real-world context of refugee children. Also clear was children's awareness of world problems, including war and international rivalry, and a strong commitment to social ideals. In the social interaction of dialogue they grapple with sophisticated concepts and in the process develop their abilities to clarify and share their ideas. How we listen to those voices and respond to them could transform much of what goes on in our classrooms and our homes.

Sue Lyle is a lecturer in primary education at Swansea Institute of Higher Education, Wales, UK. Her current research is the development of worthwhile opportunities for children to make meaning about the world through talk.

Notes

1 To book a performance of MOVING! or obtain a copy of the notes to accompany it, contact Debbie Allan. Education Unit, Save the Children, 17 Grove Lane, London SE5 8RD.

2 Small World Theatre. for brochures describing their extensive work on development issues in Britain and overseas contact them at Fern Villa, Ilasngygydd, Cardigan, Dyfed, Wales.

WEF Book Award 1995

LEARNING TO SUCCEED -A radical look at education today and a strategy for the future

Report of the National Commission on Education, Heinemann, London 1993,
ISBN 0434000353, 450pp incl index

Education in the United Kingdom is suffering from change fatigue. Some of the changes, such as the National Curriculum and records of achievement have a clear educational rationale; others such as testing, league tables, 'opting out', parental choice and local management of schools have been introduced in the name of 'accountability' and 'cost-effectiveness'. Many teachers have found it difficult to perceive an overall strategy with which they can identify, and have felt aggrieved at those politicians who seem to place the ills of society on teachers and progressive education'. There is a mood of resentment, moving in favour of a long period of quiet consolidation.

'Learning to Succeed' could not be more timely. The very title is one which can inspire and unite most teachers - a breath of fresh air. It shows that quiet consolidation is almost the last thing we need.

The National Commission on Education was sponsored by the Paul Hamlyn Foundation in 1991 following a call by Sir Claus Moser for 'a review of education ... which would be visionary about the medium and long- term future facing our children and this country'.

Under the chairmanship of Lord Walton of Detchant, the Commission drew on the expertise of teachers, researchers and employers. It looked at experience and research evidence on schools, schooling, the teaching profession, higher education, preparing for work, ways of learning and resources. In contrast to the imposed changes of the Eighties, the recommendations of the Commission are seen to be grounded in professional judgement, and there is a coherent educational strategy.

The educational vision adopted by the Commission overlaps that of the WEF with its emphasis on the importance of having skilled teachers, the need to 'stimulate people to think for themselves and to change the world around them', recognising the full range of people's abilities, and the need to encourage everyone to want to learn. The Commission gives a high priority to early learning and to continuing lifelong learning. Learning in the community, independent study, records of achievement, the development of creativity and thinking skills - these are emphases which WEF has long championed, as is the importance the Commission gives to school ethos and values. There should be high expectations of everyone; everyone should have the opportunity and support to develop and succeed.

The Commission falls short of some of the expectations of the WEF - particularly in the area of assessment. There are parts with which the WEF will disagree. Many of the recommendations inevitably need further work before they can be implemented. But I am pleased to recommend 'Learning to Succeed' for the WEF Book Award because it provides an opportunity for the WEF to play a leading role in helping teachers and policy makers to progress some of the Fellowship's ideals. It shows a groundswell of support for progressive education within a context of external reality and internal rigour. It is an opportunity for the members of the World Education Fellowship to play an active role in the future of education in Britain. In contrast to the imposed changes of the Eighties, what a refreshing change.

John Stephenson
Chair, WEF Guiding Committee

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A Classroom in a Box

The Teacher's Emergency Package is a bridge between the void created by the war and a return to normal.

How do you organize classes when there are no classrooms, no teachers and no teaching materials?

This predicament is more common than might be expected and most often the case for 20 million refugees scattered around the world and an equal number of "displaced persons". Text books, exercise books and the like do not figure among the few belongings that these people packed before fleeing. In their make-shift homes in the camps, the main priorities are the provision of water, food and shelter.

Most of these people have fled armed conflicts and the resulting destruction, pillage and chaos. Schools and teachers rarely survive this violence. Such has been the experience in Cambodia, Somalia and most recently in Rwanda.

In this latter case, primary education was considered mediocre even before the conflict began in comparison with other African countries. The public and subsidised private sectors accommodated only two thirds of Rwanda's children, and only half of the country's girls. On average there were some 43 students per class and 108 per teacher - half of whom were under-qualified. Less than 50 percent of students completed primary school.

This shaky structure collapsed during the genocide of the Tutsi minority by the Hutu majority, the systematic pillage, and the flight to neighbouring countries by a quarter of Rwanda's

population. Primary school teachers were particularly hard hit. More than two thirds of them either fled or were killed. Most were Tutsis as teaching was held in such low esteem that the former regime didn't object if they numerically dominated the profession.

According to the new minister for primary and secondary education, Paul-Celestin Rigwema, almost half of primary schools and all of the generally better equipped secondary schools have been ransacked. Text books, exercise books, pencils and slates are rare finds. Besides, even if these materials were readily available, very few people would be able to afford to buy them.

Yet, getting children back to school marks an important step in the return to stability and a certain normality. It is also a symbolic indication that the state machinery is rolling again. In Rwanda, re-starting classes is a way to help children traumatized by the massacres and destruction by restoring some order to the chaos that has become their existence. The daily routine of attending class in starting or re-starting a child's education offers some stability to these young lives, helping them to turn the page on the past and providing them with a goal for the future.

With this in mind, Paul-Celestin Rigwema has attempted to get children back into class as closely as possible to the dates they would usually start school after the summer break despite the lack of materials and means. His key support has been the Teacher's Emergency Package (TEP), a sort of "classroom in a box" developed by UNESCO's Programme for Education for Emergency and

Reconstruction (PEER).

In a large wooden box, the TEP contains all the necessary items to run a class: blackboard paint which can be applied to any flat surface, alphabet and multiplication tables on cloth sheets, slates, pencils and exercise books for 40 pupils. The materials are in Kinyarwanda, the national language. All that remains to be found is a place - a building, or even the shade of a tree - where the children can gather. The cost works out at about 10 French francs (a bit less than \$2) per pupil.

PEER, with UNICEF's full support, has so far distributed 600 TEPs in Rwanda. The goal is to get 9,000 out by the end of the year, thus reaching 700,000 children. To ensure that there are enough teachers, experts from international organizations are providing intensive courses to trainers who in turn teach the teachers - many of whom are simply volunteers with little or no experience. In Rwanda itself, there are plans to train 6,000 people in the coming months. As a further support, each TEP also comes with a manual to guide teachers through their lessons.

"The TEP was never conceived to provide a classical education", stresses Pamela Baxter who is in charge of PEER operations in Rwanda. "It's simply a rapid response to an emergency situation, a bridge between the void that was created by the war and a return to normal."

Conceived for children between five and 14 years old, the teaching programmes concentrate on the essentials: reading, writing and arithmetic. Basic safety instructions such as how to recognize

anti-personnel mines are also included. There are about 40,000 mines scattered in Rwanda.

It should also be remembered that these children are haunted by the violence they have witnessed and in no state to assimilate new knowledge at a normal pace. The training programmes thus emphasize the teachers' psychological role in helping the children overcome their traumatic memories by urging them to express themselves through speaking, drawing, singing and other activities.

Long-term work is also underway to reconstruct the entire education system - from rebuilding and repairing schools to upgrading teacher quality and re-designing the curriculum. Basic subjects such as maths should not pose major problems. However, history, for example, must be completely reworked as the approach taken in the past depended on the relationship between the Hutus and the Tutsis. UNESCO has set up a team of Rwandan teachers to prepare a new series of text books.

Basically, the system - from its aims to its selection criteria which were previously linked to ethnic and regional 'quotas' - is being completely overhauled.

As surviving teachers point out, the politicians may be overwhelmingly responsible for the war in Rwanda, but education - through its organization and the treatment of subjects taught - also had its part to play.

Rene LEFORT, Kigali

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Education for Emergency and Reconstruction

UNESCO and UNICEF first developed the TEP (Teachers' Emergency Package) for use in Somalia in 1992. It was further refined in the refugee camps of Djibouti. However Rwanda is its first, full-scale testing ground.

In the camps of Tanzania, which have sheltered 500,000 Rwandan refugees since the end of last April, the PEER programme plans to open 10 schools of 10 classes each. The aim is to reach some 50,000 children, or half of the primary school age population. The programme is identical to that underway in Rwanda which ensures that returning children suffer no major educational disruptions. It is supported by the

UNHCR and NGOs such as Christian Outreach (UK), Irish CONCERN, Disaster Relief Agency (Netherlands), Norwegian people's Aid and a German agency GTZ. The programme will be extended to Rwandan refugees in Zaire, to refugees in Ethiopia and those coming from Southern Sudan.

So far, UNESCO has allocated \$1.3 million for Rwanda, most of which is devoted to educational activities. Resources from other agencies, including UNICEF amount to £1.5 million.

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The Academic Curriculum 16-19: reviewing the A Level curriculum in the UK in the light of the development of General National Vocational Qualification

Helen Burchell

The relationship between an academically-based curriculum and a vocationally-oriented curriculum in 16-19 education is an issue in a number of European countries and in the USA (Leclerq: 1994; Lewis: 1994). A bifurcation of these two study routes post 16 has been the norm but, as Leclerq and Lewis point out, there is also something of a trend to integrate them. In the UK the academic route is enshrined in the A level curriculum. Until recently a range of vocational courses aimed at the same age range was offered by examining bodies such as the Business and Technician Education Council (BTEC) and the City and Guilds of London Institute; these have now been replaced by qualifications established by the National Council for Vocational Qualifications (NCVQ) which are either in the form of occupation-specific National Vocational Qualifications (NVQs) or the more recently introduced General National Vocational Qualification (GNVQ). The focus of this article is the A level curriculum and the potential for reform therein. However, it is not possible to examine this post-16 route in isolation; as will be demonstrated, the GNVQ may have been seen by some as a way of resolving some of the dilemmas in the A level curriculum, but in reality it still leaves major issues in relation to the A level curriculum untouched.

What then are the issues facing the A level curriculum? Historically the problem has been largely defined as how to develop 16-19 provision to include those students whose needs and aspirations may be significantly different from those of the elite group of students aiming at entry to higher education for whom the A level curriculum was originally designed (Burchell: 1992; Mathieson: 1992). Dunford (1994) records the views of a number of organisations which have put forward 16-19 policies and suggests that coherence is a key concept for many. Several organisations, for example the Confederation of British Industry, suggest a single post-16

framework integrating academic and vocational qualifications in some way. The Government's proposal is for separate academic and vocational pathways, with equivalence established in terms of level (e.g., GNVQ/NVQ level 3 equates with A level standard). One way of viewing these proposals is to see them as attempts to deal with the issue through restructuring the system. In an earlier article Burchell (1992) I explored the Government's attempt to restructure the A level curriculum itself in terms of seeking a broadening of the curriculum through the introduction of Advanced Supplementary (AS) examinations to be taken alongside A levels; as Mathieson (1992) points out, this development was of limited success. More radical changes to the A level curriculum have always stumbled in the face of the tradition enshrined in the three subject specialist study typical of many students' A level programmes. In an historical analysis of some attempts to change this curriculum (Burchell: 1992) the relative power of various interest groups such as 'the old humanists', 'the public educators' and 'the industrial trainers' (a typology derived from the work of Raymond Williams: 1961) was explored. In comparison with earlier discussions of reform the debate taking place nationally in the early 1990s appeared to be resolving itself into a confirmation of the position of the 'old humanists' (A level 'standards' were not to be lowered) with some reference to the needs of the 'industrial trainers' with the proposal for the introduction of core skills into the A level curriculum. A similar analysis of the situation was provided by Mathieson (1992).

If the A level structure seemed immune to radical change, perhaps the answer lay in the development of a parallel, but equal system? The introduction of the GNVQ in 1992 - the vocational A level as it has been referred to by the Government - suggests it is timely to explore whether its existence suggests the reform of the

A level curriculum is no longer needed.

One major aspect of the various attempts to reform the A level curriculum was their aim to serve better the full range of students then following A levels, and to provide for a growing clientele of students post-16. Although there have always been vocational courses available as an alternative to A levels the replacement of these by the GNVQ might suggest a better situation than before: the GNVQ is not occupation-specific (as were many vocational courses offered as parallels to A levels) and it is designed to be taught in schools as well as further education colleges. Moreover, its explicit link with A level (GNVQ level 3 = A level standard) and therefore its perceived relevance as an entry qualification for higher education differentiate it from previous alternatives to A levels. In theory the introduction of such a vocational A level might indicate a diversion of interest away from reforming the A level curriculum itself and an emphasis placed on a bifurcated post-16 system. Arguably as far as the A level territory is concerned the old humanists remain in power, with the energy of public educators and industrial trainers - the latter in particular - hived off into developing the GNVQ system. This is reflected in the process of development of GNVQs with industry-led definitions of the competences those acquiring them should be expected to demonstrate (Smithers:1993).

However, GNVQs have been seriously criticised (Smithers:1993). Following the NVQ tradition they have been developed on the basis of defining competences as the requirement for the award, without specifying a programme of study to be followed, or a time limit for the study period, and emphasising student-centred learning strategies. Moreover, perhaps the most significant issue is that of how the knowledge base for such a vocational qualification is to be articulated: the assumption within the NVQ framework is that underpinning knowledge and theory will be largely inferred from competent performance. The nature of the critique of GNVQs in particular, however, as outlined by Smithers , views them

as questionable in terms of the extent to which they provide an adequate preparation for higher education and presents an unfavourable comparison with BTEC courses which they replace, particularly in terms of the effect of the reduction in content compared with such courses.

One possible Government strategy, therefore, would be to acknowledge such criticisms and attempt to develop a general vocational route post-16 which incorporates more of the strengths

“The challenge may lie in creating a strong academically-based but practically- and vocationally-relevant curriculum.”

of such courses offered by other European countries. A way forward may be suggested by the findings of a group of Barking and Dagenham teachers who examined advanced level teaching in a

range of Western European countries (Barking & Dagenham: 1993). Among the observations they make are that courses are set out in great detail, academic content is often linked to and taught through practical and vocational courses, excellent textbooks are provided for each course, and high quality teaching - including direct instruction - is provided. Such a strategy might lead to a strong vocationally-based but academically rigorous qualification. However, this would still leave the A level curriculum untouched. Is there also not room for a revision of this curriculum? If earlier reforms have foundered in attempting to change the structure of the curriculum, largely in seeking to broaden the fields of study by suggesting the study of five subjects instead of three, perhaps the answer lies in developing for each subject a syllabus and a pedagogy that would be seen as of interest and relevance to a range of students not necessarily suited to or aspiring to the study of an academic discipline. The challenge may lie in creating a strong academically-based but practically- and vocationally- relevant curriculum.

Thus, a strong critique of the GNVQ system may lead to greater emphasis on re-examining the potential for changing the A level system itself. This raises the question of the possibility of vocationalizing A levels - i.e. re-opening the ‘settlement’ arrived at between the old humanists, the public educators and the industrial trainers in establishing the status quo regarding the A level

curriculum. Some attempt has, of course, been made in this direction as a result of the Technical and Vocational Education Initiative (TVEI): Dale et al (1990) have pointed out that the initiative encouraged humanities teachers to explore the vocational dimension of their subjects. As a result some revisions of A level courses have taken place (Wardman: 1989) and the issue of making the curriculum more accessible to as wide a range of students as possible has been explored. For example, in the case of A level English Harrison & Mountford (1992) show how an acknowledgement of the need for reform of traditional A level literature syllabuses has led to a focus on changes in curriculum content and modes of learning which bear a strong relationship to the central principles of TVEI. Nonetheless, the potential resistance to such developments on a general basis needs to be recognised. As Mathieson (1992) points out, there may not be a great deal of impetus for such change among teachers:

‘...it seems likely that specialist teachers will continue to subscribe to the present system because they originate from it, derive professional recognition and satisfaction from it, perceive congratulatory affinities with the academics to whom they entrust their most gifted and rewarding charges; they subscribe, that is, to the ideas and ideologies which underpin the present system.’ (pp.196-197)

If GNVQs remain flawed in the way described, then they cannot be argued to be the best way of resolving the dilemma faced by the A level curriculum. Our attention should then turn to reviewing that curriculum, and its attendant pedagogy. Some of the lessons of TVEI may prove useful here, as will those to be learnt from our European and USA colleagues. Lewis (1994), for example, points to attempts in the USA to integrate liberal/academic and vocational education. He outlines three ways in which this might be happening: by developing vocational education in such a way that it reflects general education principles, by developing school-based courses that integrate academic and vocational areas, and by developing foundational skills and options to be incorporated into the curricula for all high-school graduates. Lewis argues that the

first of these remains an ideal rather than something translated into reality, but that the other two proposals have had an impact on the system. In the case of the attempt to integrate academic and vocational courses, Lewis refers to a major research study of academic/vocational integration initiatives across the country whose authors

‘make clear that this movement has progressed well beyond mere rhetoric to practical initiatives in the schools. They point out also that it is driven by a multiplicity of urges, including the reform of vocational education to be sure, but also the desire (notably by those in the cognitive science camp) to make academic learning more connected to a meaningful context. these authors have identified several ‘models’ of integration, reflecting in some instances initiatives by vocational teachers wanting to make their content more liberal, and in others by academic teachers wanting to show the career relevance of their content.’ (p.210)

The final strategy, involving the development of foundational competences and skills, is reminiscent of the arguments for core skills within the 16-19 curriculum (e.g., National Curriculum council: 1990). Here, although the competencies and skills are proposed for all high school graduates, the major focus seems to be on those graduates who enter the workplace rather than college. In addition to recounting some of these developments in the USA Lewis explores the question of the perceived incompatibility of a liberal education and a progressive vocationalism: a detailed examination of the issues here might lead to a less sharply focused divide between the A level and the GNVQ routes.

In the European context also developments which have a bearing on the academic curriculum are taking place. In an overview article Leclercq (1994) points to the fact that reforms in Spain, Sweden and Italy, for example, are bringing general education and vocational training closer together. This is reflected in the certification offered with the Baccalaureat professionnel the Maturita professionale and the Berufliche Abitur being developed alongside the traditional forms of certification. While, as Leclercq argues, these developments in qualifications will reflect only a

proportion of those following the vocational route, they nevertheless indicate a strategy from which the UK might learn. At present much of the debate in the UK seems to be centring on ways of enhancing the academic rigour of vocational courses, particularly the GNVQ. An alternative or parallel strategy of seriously examining the ways of developing a more inclusive basis to the A level curriculum through debating issues of practical and vocational relevance in course design and pedagogy is now urgently needed.

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Past Imperfect, Present Indicative, Future Conditional Special Needs Education in Postwar England

Philip Garner and Sarah Sandow

Introduction

This paper attempts to draw lessons from the past, make sense of the present and identify the prospects for the future in special educational needs (SEN). In 1944, special education in England inherited an intellectual model of disability conceived in the context of rigid class and educational structure. We identify this as an intellectual model because of the prevailing assessment methods, and because of the traditional view of intelligence as mainly, with few exceptions, class based. The view of ability and personality was absolutist and assessment was totally norm-referenced. Post war egalitarianism permeated the system in the 1960s, and the 1980s saw the high point of quality in practice and provision. Now it appears that we have come full circle with a return to an intellectual model overlaid with a commercial consumerist ethos.

The Past

At the time of the 1944 Education Act special education (though not identified by that name) was limited to those described as educationally subnormal or physically handicapped; those who are, in 1994, the subjects of 'statements' of SEN. The 1944 Act theoretically promoted integration, and Section 34 made no mention of categories of children, enjoining Local Education Authorities (LEA's) merely to 'ascertain what children in their area require special education'. The subsequent identification of categories of handicap facilitated the easy removal of children into segregated schools or training centres. In 1944 the permanence of any disabling condition was taken for granted and the acceptance of the concept of intelligence quotient (IQ,) (a) as a valid measure of ability and (b) as an unchanging characteristic, justified permanent segregated placements.

Three groups of children received little or no attention in the 1944 Education Act. The severely educationally subnormal (idiots and imbeciles) were outside the education system altogether, being regarded as 'unsuitable for education in school'. In hospitals and training centres they were, until 1971, taught and cared for by untrained supervisors. Although the general requirement for categorisation as severely mentally subnormal was an IQ below 50, some groups such as those with Down's Syndrome, were identified as severely subnormal purely on the basis of medical diagnosis. Even where an IQ score 'justified' it, such children were excluded from schools for the educationally subnormal (ESN) on principle, as the schools tried to preserve their image as educational rather than training establishments.

A second group were those identified as maladjusted. Many were sent to ESN schools, a practice criticised partly as it meant that places for the 'seriously retarded' were consequently reduced. In 1946, one per cent of schoolchildren in any year were identified as maladjusted (Ministry of Education, 1955). LEA's developed the practice of sending such children to independent special schools. By 1954 there were over 2000 children in independent special schools and maintained boarding schools.

Thirdly, the 1944 Act recognised that there were children with SEN in ordinary schools; these being identified as those whose attainments were 20% or more below average. Within the tripartite education system enshrined in the 1944 Act, such children were generally accommodated in secondary modern schools. Placement decisions were made on the basis of intelligence tests, which presented difficulties for those seen as maladjusted. The resulting rigidity prevented a more productive approach to special education.

Before 1978 the focus of identification was on removal from the mainstream and upon *where* the child would be educated rather than *how*. Special schools had long been initiating curriculum change but such innovations were virtually unknown in many ordinary schools. Perhaps this accounts for the failure of the mainstream to take much notice of these developments, and the reluctance to promote special schools as resource centres as envisaged by the Warnock Report (1978). This has contributed to the retention of categories of handicap, although they now bear different labels. and will only be abandoned if *what* is learned and taught and *how* this takes place has precedence over *where*.

The role and influence of teachers also illustrates the shift in thinking about SEN. It points to the context-sensitive nature of SEN as a whole, where the status

of professionals as well as children is bound up with the prevailing social and political climate of the time. Remedial teachers before 1978 had low status within schools. They had little influence on general curriculum issues or on many of the decisions concerning children with SEN. The teachers found that their professional status was inferior to that of those colleagues who dealt with the 'normal' school population.

As early as the nineteenth century there were signs that the medical approach to individual differences was to become an important factor in legislation, management and education of the children called subnormal. Doctors dominated the commissions and committees dealing with such matters. The medicalisation of SEN meant that those working in this area felt that their views and practices were subordinate to a more influential profession. Teachers, in other words, were working *for* doctors. One advantage of categorisation for governments and administrators was that it made planning easier. Finite rules about identification made firm predictions possible about numbers and types of handicap. This, in turn, provided information for financial planners to determine the level of funding for SEN. The national response to children regarded as 'defective' was therefore governed by economic pragmatism.

Bash, Coulby & Jones (1985) later outlined a number of ideological concepts to explain educational segregation. These include individualism, intelligence and behaviour. *Individualism* suggests that there are some children so intrinsically different from others that an appropriate education can only be provided in a specific, dedicated environment. The concept of *intelligence* has provided a powerful model for special education since the late 19th century. Until the 1960s, most decisions on educational placement were taken on the basis of the reliability and validity of IQ tests. Only then was social disadvantage recognised as a factor in explaining educational performance. *Behaviour*, has long been used as a means of segregation. Acceptable behaviour is finely prescribed by what is required by the dominant groups in society.

Each of these ideas is based upon normative values which are notoriously vague and indeterminate, especially in the case of behaviour. Norm referencing is the powerful legacy of classical psychology and is now resurgent, as shall be seen below, following the 1988 Education Act and the National Curriculum.

These three concepts affected the way special education developed since 1944. Within an individualist paradigm, teachers have been regarded as specially skilled and devoted. In terms of intellect, they have been seen as less able than other teachers.

In the case of behaviour, the teacher was seen as controlling rather than teaching. All three interpretations lead to the marginalisation of the SEN teacher.

The link between economic deprivation and the incidence of SEN began to be acknowledged as a result of the influence of the child-centred and socially committed thinking of the 1960's. Educationists thus began to focus their attention upon communities in which disadvantage was significant. Community and compensatory initiatives began, influenced by developments in the USA, such as Headstart. However, such programmes, whilst costing billions of dollars, had only a limited immediate effect in the USA, and in the context of competition for funds during the Vietnam war, many were discontinued and regarded as failures.

In England also, projects aimed at addressing underachievement were significantly underfunded. Critics pointed out that only 150 schools of the 3,000 recommended by the Plowden Report (1967) received EPA (Educational Priority Area) funding. Once again a depressing picture was painted of SEN losing out in the competition for declining resources.

The community education movement, although it focussed on the mainstream, had particular implications for SEN. It attempted to harness the energies of a 'deprived' population in the service of their own community. It was an ideological and strategic response to social and economic disadvantage. The concept of 'community education' is notoriously difficult to pin down. However, the model implies that the process is generated from *within* the neighbourhood, rather than being imposed from without.

SEN itself is an issue about equality of access and social justice. The prevalence of SEN is at its highest in the post-industrial conurbations and large towns in England. This exemplified what Blair (1974) called an 'international urban crisis', in which large towns and cities were faced with pandemic underachievement and problem behaviour from many children. Thornbury (1978) maintained that the schools system, especially in new comprehensives or multi-ethnic neighbourhoods, was on the edge of total collapse'.

Robert Owen first established community schools in the 19th Century in New Lanark in Scotland. Much later, however, the village colleges of Cambridgeshire, were established by Henry Morris. In the 1970's these ideas found renewed favour as a means of securing the participation in education of the urban underclass. Supporters of community schooling saw the school as 'the new saviour of society'. But was it the answer to the dilemmas facing Special Education?

The social deprivation interpretation thus began to displace the intellectual model of SEN. Education was seen as a weapon in the battle against poverty (Silver, 1983). If poverty could be defeated, then educational failure could be a thing of the past.

In this context an academic curriculum was seen by many, notably Midwinter (1972) as an irrelevance which hindered the empowerment of the disadvantaged. Such a view, however could be said to have overtones of patronage and a degree of romanticism.

Nevertheless, community education has reminded us that the curriculum can be a source of learning difficulty and this has enabled a shift from a deficit model as an automatic explanation of SEN. Skrtic (1991) has pointed out the way that an exclusive concentration on learning pathology has the effect of deflecting attention from what is offered to the child, and how this is taught. The National Curriculum Council's (1989) 'A Curriculum for All' emphasised the responsibilities of teachers to adapt, differentiate or re-structure the curriculum for children who have SEN. However, like all positive change, this can be taken too far. Differentiation should not mean watering down or oversimplifying the curriculum, nor transforming it into a collection of individualised programmes.

Community education was designed to encourage critical review of the experiences from which it was drawn, and this was the foundation of the social engineering for which it has been criticised. The borderline between community education and special education became increasingly blurred. To admit of individual differences unexplained by social factors appeared to strengthen the view that no educational failure could be the result of any 'marked unfairness in the educational or economic systems' (Bash, Coulby and Jones, 1985).

In contrast, compensatory education was designed to lift the disadvantaged child out of the 'deprived' environment into a bourgeois culture. In special schools the compensatory principle took hold, and was underlined by a range of early intervention programmes, notably the Portage project (Shearer and Shearer, 1972). Throughout the 1980s, there was an exponential growth of professionals concerned with special education. 'Special units', both on- and off-site, mushroomed, but relatively few children were returned from such provision to the mainstream. Tomlinson (1982) was among those who warned that the new special education industry was constructed not for the benefit of the immediate clientele but in order to reinforce the 'normal' and to justify exclusion.

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The Present

In 1978 the Warnock Committee recommended the replacement of categories by the concept of learning difficulty. The 1981 Education Act followed, incorporating some of the principles of the Warnock Report. This has had a substantial effect in increasing educational opportunities for children with SEN. This coupled with the recognition that IQ is an unreliable predictor has helped to free children from the limitations of permanent placement. Even those with severe learning difficulties (SLD) have frequently been integrated into schools for children with moderate learning difficulties (MLD), or into ordinary schools. However it is evident that this process is in danger of abuse. Under the provisions of the Education Reform Act (1988) integrated children with 'statements' of SEN bring with them substantial funds to the schools which accepted them. The eighteen per cent without statements, largely disregarded until 1981, now appear to be considered an expensive nuisance by schools desperate to improve their place in the new league tables.

The 1981 Education Act was heralded by many as marking the beginning of a new period for children who did not fit in to the normative interpretation of child development. Two current interpretations of developments that have taken place in SEN following this Act can be identified. They are sharply polarised and demonstrate the extent to which rhetoric has often been removed from reality.

The first interpretation is that this legislation marked a watershed in thinking in respect of disability. This is highlighted if the Act is viewed against the somewhat depressing historical backcloth of deficit and segregation, notwithstanding the attempts, noted previously, to approach the issue from a more wholistic, community-based position. The Act generated considerable publicity, and brought the

whole question of learning difficulty more centrally to the agenda of general education.

The individual rights of children were reinforced, and parents were given a central role in decision-making. For the teachers, the Act meant that a previously marginalised and low-status member of the school community assumed more influence, not just in relation to input to management procedures in ordinary schools, but also to curriculum-making in general. A great deal of what has long been regarded as good practice in special schools (for instance, task analysis and differentiation, and setting of individual learning targets) was adopted by mainstream schools and even by Government policy makers. One could, in fact, argue that the directed learning programmes of the National Curriculum, complete with their attainment targets (AT's) were merely a more (or less....) sophisticated version of an approach to curriculum practices maintained over many years in special schools.

The 1981 Education Act brought with it other significant changes, which addressed the long-established view that SEN children who had learning difficulties nearly always came from a situation of social and economic disadvantage. LEA's were now required to provide a detailed account of how the special needs of children were to be met. This became the statutory duty of the LEA, and could be used by parents and others in litigating on behalf of the child with SEN.

This period has also seen an unprecedented movement towards integration. Following the influence of PL 94-142 (the 1975 Federal Law which defined and promoted integrated practice) in the United States, and of developments in parts of Western Europe, the Warnock Committee (DES, 1978) had stated that it was no longer acceptable to segregate certain groups of children on the basis of SEN. This brought many special and mainstream schools into more cooperative relationships, and promoted joint teaching and social encounters.

But a second, more negative interpretation is that the potential of this piece of legislation was overshadowed by the responses of the very government that introduced it and by the drive of that same government towards a system of educational provision which made competition for both children and resources a fact of educational life. The 1988 Act is predicated on the representation of high 'standards' in education as residing solely in academic excellence and seeks to identify schools as effective only in terms of examination results, achieved with the lowest possible unit of resource. As Warnock herself wrote (1991) this principle is directly opposed to the concept

of provision according to need which was the basis of the 1981 Act, and which can never be cost-effective. The 1988 Act therefore contradicts the spirit and frustrates the objectives of the 1981 Act. Considerable attention has been given to the continuing and developing inequality of provision that is likely to result (Barton & Oliver, 1992).

During this time a certain schizophrenia could be observed in the behaviour of educationists. On the one hand it seemed that compensatory procedures were approved in order to allow the inclusion of atypical children; on the other, protagonists of community education were increasingly ambivalent about the value and relevance of the curriculum in which they were to be included.

Many found this debate an irrelevance. They wanted their students to be included within society as it existed, and, as long as there was reasonably full employment, that was an acceptable outcome. Teachers and others in special schools remained essentially apolitical and separate; their concern was for their pupils as individuals. However, as a result of the events of the 1980s and 1990s special schools now see themselves as much more part of the overall education system. On the one hand they have experienced the push towards integration initiated by the Warnock Committee and promoted by the 1981 Education Act, with the consequent emphasis on return to the mainstream. On the other hand, financial pressures have resulted in the closure or amalgamation of special schools and the virtual elimination of residential provision. In addition, local management of special schools, the adoption of the National Curriculum and inclusion in 'league tables', have changed the vision of special educators. In the present climate of mass unemployment, weighted inevitably towards the less able, it is unlikely that the traditional social, rather than intellectual, emphasis of community education will be attractive to today's teachers.

It is still too early to say how the 1993 Education Act will facilitate positive change. The Association of Metropolitan Authorities (AMMA) has commented that, subject to the effectiveness of the expected code of practice, the lot of those children with SEN but without a statement should improve (Morris, Reid and Fowler, 1993). However, they also note that many teachers are still very uninformed about SEN, and that LEAs may be reluctant to give information to them for fear of resource implications.

Finally, the individual rights of children are currently a growth area in SEN. The recent origins of the movement could be found in the work of the so-called liberal, person-centred educational thinkers of the 1960's: Freire, Holt, Neill and so on. Their legacy

was influential in the deliberations of the Warnock Committee, and in the subsequent Education Act (1981). The 1989 Children Act extended this philosophy in the associated area of child protection, thereby bringing to social service legislation a similar degree of awareness.

On an international scale, too, children's rights became a very visible policy component during the 1980's. The United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989), for example, embodied a number of principles which reinforced the view that children required a set of rights which would enable them to have access to, and influence over, the way in which their own education was organised.

To what extent the 'rights' of individual children (especially those whose behaviour is assumed to be problematic) have been reinforced in real terms is something of a moot point, however. A contradictory analysis is that collective guilt can be exorcised by legislative benevolence. This was arguably the function of the provisions for SEN in the 1944 Act. This rhetoric is subsumed in the bureaucracy of government institution, professional organisation and charity alike, and is not always translated into effective action for the disadvantaged. Perhaps such organisations exist for the advancement of a professional elite, labouring under a banner of doing good whilst benefiting from the kudos that benevolence brings? Saintliness *may* benefit the recipient, but it *always* enhances the reputation of the holy.

The Future

The conditional future which can be anticipated for special education in England sits uneasily alongside these international developments. The rights of individual children, and of those who work directly with them, are likely to be challenged by the reactionary nature of recent developments in special education. The 1988 Education Act meant a return to the same heavily prescriptive curriculum that was first introduced into England as the Revised Code (1862). The rebarbative parallels make uncomfortable reading. The Revised Code presents two crucial points of comparison with the 1988 Education Act. In the first place the Code stated that grants to schools were to be assessed in part by the level of attendance of pupils and by their performance in annual examinations in reading, writing and arithmetic. The 1988 Act enshrined this notion of 'payment by results', albeit in a less overt way. Schools in England are now required to publish 'league tables' which indicate to prospective parents the level of pupil performance in public examinations; as parents also have a choice regarding where their children go to school, and

academic excellence represented by exam results is seen as a significant persuader in this respect, it follows that 'payment' in the shape of increased pupil numbers will be made to 'successful' schools. A further parallel between the two pieces of legislation may be drawn from the importance placed upon attendance.

Secondly, the Revised Code of 1862 prescribed a curriculum which all children should follow. This, for reading, writing and arithmetic was assessed at 6 standards of competence. In the National Curriculum, which was introduced in 1988, a set of 'attainment targets' and 'key stages' were proposed as a means of evaluating the level of pupil performance.

Whilst important differences, outlined in greater detail by Curtis (1992), do remain, the historical parallels are powerful. The similarities sketched above are the product of an ideology which has remained central to the English education system for the last 100 years or so. That is, that education is a process of filling children's minds with information, and that any failure is due to lack of capacity on the part of the individual child. Capacity is restricted, it is assumed, by innate factors or by the failure of parents to prepare the child to receive instruction. One endemic attitude subsumed in this is that children who experience learning problems in schools are the products of 'inferior' environments. Thus the entry in a school record from 1881, that

children attending (school) are inferior in social standing, in habits and manners, in regularity, in bringing up, to those usually attending our schools ... Many are manifestly deficient in intellect (East Bergholt school log, 1881)

represents a view similar to that noted by Mortimore & Blackstone (1982) who referred to the persistent, negative relationship between social disadvantage and educational attainment. Little, it appears, has changed for those who receive special education in the period between 1880 and the present time.

The period between 1944 and 1994 has presented a wide range of legislative devices aimed both at reform and at optimising existing provision for those children who have SENs. In this paper we have attempted to identify the significant trends in special education over the last fifty years. It is difficult to remain optimistic, however, given the continued ideological dominance of right-wing governments in England. Whilst apparently benevolent in design, legislation subsequent to the 1944 Education Act has been subverted by the demands of economic and political pragmatism. Legislation alone is not enough. Thus, we argue, children who have SENs in England continue to be patronised, ignored or stigmatised.

The value of examining a recent history of special education may well be that, as Barton & Oliver (1992) have pointed out, during a period of extensive educational and social change, our minds are anaesthetised to the importance of the past. They conclude that such an historical review will have the advantage of 'making visible the relations between educational structures and processes and wider structures of power, economy and control in particular periods of social change' (p. 4). Nowhere has this been more so than in the case of special education in the England between 1944 and 1994.

Teachers and others therefore need to consider to what extent they should engage in unified direct and indirect action (as proposed by Harris, 1983) on behalf of children who have SEN. The profession needs to re-state its commitment to those principles, embodied in 1944, and reinforced in 1981, so that the negative features of the 1988 Education Reform Act are not that Act's predominating effect on the SEN population.

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Round the World - WEF Section News

Rosemary Crommelin

Headquarters

Many readers will already know, and will share our regret, that John Stephenson has decided to resign from the Chairmanship of the Guiding Committee. For some years now he has been based in Leeds, and the expansion of his work there in Higher Education for Capability has made it increasingly difficult for him to attend formal meetings of the Committee in London, and even more difficult to find the necessary time to take part in the informal working-groups. He was anxious to resign in time for his replacement to be chosen prior to the UN50 Conference in London, when there would be opportunity for discussion with and approval by Section representatives.

We are glad that John will see the 1996 Environment and Education Conference in Malaysia to its conclusion, as his work with Higher Education for Capability will take him to Malaysia in November this year, and in April 1996, enabling him to attend conference-committee meetings in Kuching. Christopher Strong, of the Australian Council, is also willing to assist with the development of the conference programme. Looking further to the future, John hopes to continue to participate in the Fellowship's activities as much as his work allows, and we shall look forward to continuing our work with him.

Section Secretaries will have noted from the Minutes of the May meeting of the Guiding Committee that three names were put forward for the Chairmanship. Two withdrew from the nomination, and Christine Wykes's name went forward.

Norman Graves, who was Acting-Chairman of the meeting, confirmed that in accordance with the WEF Constitution, the proposal would be notified to all who are entitled to vote; that is, office-holders on the Guiding Committee, the co-opted members, and Section representatives to the Guiding Committee, who would be asked whether they approved the nomination or wanted to submit a nomination of their own.

I was able to announce at the June meeting that most of those approached had replied, and all who did had enthusiastically endorsed the nomination of Christine Wykes.

I was able to announce at the June meeting that most of those approached had replied, and all who did had enthusiastically endorsed the nomination of Christine Wykes. Her name, along with those of other office holders, will therefore be submitted for approval by Section representatives at the WEF Annual General Meeting to be held during the London Conference.

Many readers will have met Christine when she was responsible for arrangements at the 1990 Conference which was held at the Avery Hill campus of Thames Polytechnic, now the University of Greenwich. Her present appointment is Head of the School of Education at the University.

The School of Education is one of the largest teacher-training institutions in the United Kingdom, with a wide portfolio of courses in primary and secondary initial teacher-training and an extensive programme of in-service courses for teachers, head teachers and educationists in general. Christine therefore has responsibility for

carrying forward the many changes which have been a feature of training provision in the UK in recent years, whilst at the same time trying to influence the debate nationally. She is a member of the national executive committee of the Universities Council for the Education of Teachers, and a Fellow of the Royal Society of Arts.

On the international front Christine is a founder member of the Compass Network -a grouping of Schools of Education in the Netherlands, Sweden, Portugal and the UK, and has considerable experience developing European links and training programmes together with conference organisation. She is a regular traveller to the Far East on behalf of her University, taking a particular interest in the in-service training of teachers from Hong Kong and Malaysia. Last year she was invited on a British delegation representing industry, commerce and education to the United Arab Emirates.

Christine has been a member of the Guiding Committee since September 1986, and until last year was Chair of WEF GB. She has been a very supportive member of the committee for the Conference held to mark the 50th Anniversary of the United Nations, and we are grateful for her links with Westminster Central Hall which facilitated our hiring of the Lecture Room there for our celebration.

Germany

In a recent newsletter to their members the German Section reported on several aspects of their activities.

In the field of literature the

Committee decided they would issue a series of publications under the title "International and Pedagogical Reform." Professor Hermann Rohrs is organising the first group of these books. First will be "The World Federation for Renewal of Education;" this history and future perspective is now being published. The second book will be by Bruno Redecker on the subject of the work of Martin Wagenschein.

With the publication of this series, the German Section expressed its wish to draw their members' attention to the work and pedagogical interests of WEF. They hope very much that members who would like to have articles and comments regarding the international aspect of the subject published in this series will write to the Committee in Heidelberg.

It is some time since the last EPSO conference was held, but the Section is arranging for a conference on the theme "Building Bridges" to take place next year. The date will almost certainly be July 7-18 1996, and the venue

Stiftshof Stams, which lies between Innsbruck and Landeck in the Austrian Tyrol, and will provide an ideal setting for a working conference. Members will be advised when the programme is finalised.

Unites States

Dr Mildred Haibt wrote recently to report on the April meeting of the US Section Guiding Committee, of which she is President. It was a productive other subjects the international aspect of New Era in Education, their support, and approval of the planned themes, and their wish for continued co-operation. The Section hopes to encourage the formation of regional groups and meetings with a view to developing new Chapters.

Mildred continues her letter, reporting that a few weeks later "a group of about 25-30 WEF members met for dinner at a Thai restaurant in Middletown CT, and then attended a Japanese concert at Wesleyan University. Patricia Vann

arranged this successful event and was the hostess for the evening. It provided an excellent opportunity for exchange and fellowship."

We had the pleasure of meeting with Patricia, Mildred, and many other of our US friends at the Conference in Japan last year, so it would certainly be an evening of happy memories.

At the June meeting of the Guiding Committee in London we were delighted to receive a telephone call from George Tenney, a Vice-President of WEF, from his home in Connecticut. He had been in hospital, and only just received the Committee's letter regarding the nomination of a new Chairman, so he telephoned to endorse the nomination of Christine Wykes, whom he had met at the memorable Connecticut Conference in 1992, following the UK members' enjoyable visit to United Nations Headquarters in New York.

It was good to hear from him, and the Committee here all wish him good health for the future.

FOR AND ABOUT WEF MEMBERS

John Stephenson

Sneh Shah

A few weeks ago John Stephenson felt that due to the pressure of work, and his inability to devote as much time as he would have liked to have devoted to both the World education Fellowship and The New Era in Education, his only option was to resign. He has, however, offered to carry on representing WEF on the planning committee for the 1996 WEF conference

John has been Director of Higher Education for Capability since 1987. He was previously Head of the School for Independent Study at North East London Polytechnic (now the University of East

London). He graduated at the London School of Economics in 1960, trained as a teacher in 1961, and worked for 8 years in secondary schools before entering teacher training in 1969. His PhD was awarded by Sussex University for his thesis 'The student experience of independent study'.

He joined the WEF after being a speaker at the 1980 London conference. He has attended every international conference since then and was chair of the committee which organised the 1990 London conference on Learner Managed Learning. He was Secretary of the English New Education Fellowship after Raymond King and became chair of the International Guiding



Committee in 1990.

All the Sections owe a great deal to John for the ways in which he has tried to widen the concerns of WEF, raise the profile of both the organisation and its publication and make the Fellowship truly global.

He will be missed as the Chair of the Guiding Committee but the Editor of The New Era in Education has every intention of retaining him as a member of the Editor's Advisory team.

We wish John well, but need to remind him that WEF members will continue expecting his insight and support in different ways.

Refugees: A Local Authority Service

Margaret Roberts

Young Refugee mothers from Afghanistan, Eritria, Angola, Zaire, Somalia, Pakistan, India, Bangladesh, Albania, Chernoble and China, with their youngest children, assemble at Graham Park Community Centre (Collindale, England), together with two teachers and two Crêche assistants, from 10.00 am to 12 noon every Thursday and have done so for the last five years. Numbers vary from 16 to 26 at any one session and through the year, mainly because of the temporary housing arrangements, some students leave and others arrive. Some families have maintained continuous attendance over two years. A Bangladeshi mother of five children arriving in the UK with no English is now, after two years, ready for more advanced study and the use of computer programmes.

Ours is identified as a Community Class under the auspices of a local Further Education College and financed by a North London Borough. Both teachers

are qualified; the leader who is salaried is supported by a voluntary assistant. The atmosphere is friendly and relaxed for this Beginners' Class with a programme of language teaching directly related to students' everyday experiences, and their past, often traumatic experiences. Topics explored have included food, health, education, festivals, emergencies etc. Methodology includes practice of sentence structures, asking questions, giving information, practice in the use of the telephone, dramatised situations, use of games etc.

Students who start diffidently and lacking in confidence-so that speaking in front of a group is painful-have progressed beyond the beginners' stage and advanced enough in speaking and writing English to be able to join a college course. When family conditions make it difficult for students to attend a Community Class, there is provision of Home Tutors.

Home Tutor training is provided free in the Borough for those who wish to start teaching in this way. Later it is possible to take a short introductory course, generally four weeks, at one of the FE Colleges and to proceed, after experience, to a Certificate/Diploma Course in teaching English as a Second Language (ESL). I can highly recommend this field of Community Education to those interested and wanting to assist families, who through no fault of their own, are refugees in our country.

Margaret Roberts is a long standing member of WEF GB Section

REVIEWS

Refugee Children in the Classroom by Jill Rutter, Trentham Books, 1994, ISBN No 185856 008 X, £13.95, pp. 288

Jill Rutter is the Education Officer with the Information and Policy Division of the British Refugee Council, the chief organisation in Britain focusing on the refugees.

There are three parts in the book. The first part, which has two chapters, focuses on being a refugee in Britain. The second part is headed refugees in schools and forms the bulk of the book, with ten chapters. The third part consists of detailed information about refugee groups in Britain, lists of further resources and organisations, and terminology.

The book highlights the scale of the problem: 19 million people in the world today are refugees. What may come as a shock to many people is both the scale of the problem but also the different countries from which the refugees come.

The book serves at least three different purposes. It details the refugee groups that are present in Britain, providing in on book material which is usually patchy, held by different organisations. Secondly it pinpoints the specific issues relating to refugee children- both with their parents and those that are on their own, having come as refugees in their own rights. The plight of these children, regardless of which country they come from, is a reflection of the pressures which made them leave their country, the attitude of people in the new country which could be hostile, and the tremendous pressures of adjustment related to linguistic and cultural aspects. It is quite clear that with reductions on expenditure on education, such children's needs may not be a priority.

Thirdly the book provides a comprehensive list of organisations that are working with and for refugees. The work of many organisations impinges on the lives of the refugees- such as the overseas aid agencies,

groups focusing on challenging racism and those that aim at providing support for people whose first language is not English. What is also to be noted is the large number of refugee organisations which must provide a pivot for many refugees, who may be desperate for appropriate guidance, material support and emotional comfort.

The book also lays down clearly the legislation and the regulations that greatly affect refugees and asylum seekers, from the time they attempt to get accepted in Britain to the time they are accepted as having full refugee status. In many respects this may appear to be irrelevant to teachers in schools, but in others it demonstrates the obstacles to normality for refugee children.

This is a very welcome book for all people concerned about the future of refugees, and not just class teachers.

Sneh Shah

Who Counts? Assessing Mathematics in Europe. Edited by Leonie Burton Trentham Books 1993 266pp ISBN 1 85856 011X Price £13.95

This collection of articles has its origin in a 1992 European colloquium on assessment and performance in mathematics. Many of the contributors are members of IOWME (International Organisation of Women and Mathematics), hence an additional concern with gender and mathematics. The aim of the colloquium, and this book, is to document similarities and differences in assessment styles across ten European countries, to assess their impact on gender differentiated achievement and to explore the implications this may have for overall achievement in mathematics. It does not quite achieve all of these things but it does provide a valuable introduction to, and overview of, each of these areas.

The articles brought together in this book, edited by Leonie Burton, clearly outline similarities and differences in styles of teaching and assessment patterns. From reliance on teacher-based assessment until age 16 in Denmark we move to the centrally prescribed national testing at ages 7, 11, 14 and 16 in England and Wales, and there are many variations in between. Links between assessment patterns and teaching styles regarding the purpose of mathematics teaching and learning are clearly identified, with mathematics as a useful life tool contrasted with formalised mathematics training for entry to higher education.

Leonie Burton draws together the findings of other contributors and locates them within a critical

framework focused on gender and culture. She argues that, contrary to the popular perception of mathematics as a clearly defined, absolute and universal discipline, this comparative study across countries demonstrates a somewhat unexpected cultural relativity. This is important because didactic teaching of a clearly defined, universal discipline is in opposition to the relativistic study of patterns and relationships by actively participating pupils. Content versus enquiry, as teaching methods and assessment styles, are thus identified as central issues in mathematics education. Despite wide support amongst mathematics educators across all countries for enquiry-based learning in which thinking, problem-solving and collaboration are pre-requisites, the absolutist view remains and manifests itself in so-called objective testing and assessment patterns. There is a mismatch between ideals and practice which impacts upon achievement in mathematics.

All ten countries have evidence of gender-differentiated patterns of achievement in mathematics although such information is not always collected centrally. This evidence clearly indicates that the performance of female pupils improves when enquiry-based real life mathematics is used in teaching and assessment. Despite this, many European countries remain committed to a mathematics syllabus that is content dominated and an assessment system that is driven by standardised testing. As Leonie Burton notes, this is neither socially equitable nor a fair reflection of mathematics itself.

As a detailed comparison of patterns of teaching and assessing mathematics across Europe, this book makes a valuable contribution to the understanding of cultural differences and comparative education issues. It will be of interest to readers concerned with pedagogy and assessment as well as to those concerned with comparative education, mathematics or gender. It is an important book in that it identifies the context and the constraints of research in the area, and the need for more systematic and reliable data.

**Dr. Mary Thornton, Principal Lecturer
University of Hertfordshire, UK.**

Baseline Assessment: A Review of Current Practice, Issues and Strategies for Effective Implementation by Sheila Wolfendale. An OMEP (UK) Report. Trentham Books 1993 pp 48, ISBN: 1 85856 009 8 £3.50

As the Headteacher of a small nursery school I have always been acutely aware of the need to pass on accessible, useful information about children to their infant school on their transition, so that the experiences

and learning accomplished in the nursery phase is recognised. Assessment, involving parents and children, emphasising strengths and founded on careful observations, has always been at the heart of curriculum planning. The notion of baseline assessment conjured for me the worst scenario of a '5+' test, in which children's prior learning was not acknowledged; judgements about their abilities being formed on their performance of a series of tasks on entry to school. Sheila Wolfendale dispelled these fears in her brief but comprehensive booklet which describes current practice, clearly articulates underlying principles and describes a framework through which an effective system of baseline assessment can be evolved maintaining and promoting the child's 'best interests'. Although the term 'baseline assessment' has been given recent high profile, the author points out that the practice is 'time honoured' in that most nursery and infant schools have always carried out some form of assessment on school entry. The establishment of more rigorous, systematic forms of baseline assessment has been driven by the Education Reform Act and the consequent need for schools to identify the 'value added' element in children's attainment rather than rely on the direct comparison of 'raw' data from examination results. Initiatives driven by the needs of the school rather than those of the children are met by considerable resistance, particularly by teachers of the very young. This reluctance to espouse new forms of assessment uncritically will prove valuable in the light of the diverse range of schemes reviewed in the booklet.

Materials range from open-ended descriptive statements to the simplistic production of marks and scores and seem to denote a dichotomy between a child-centred philosophy and the more pragmatic view that education is essentially linear and competitive by nature. Although clearly in favour of developing Baseline Assessment the author, at no time, minimises the difficulties involved, posing questions demanding evaluation and reappraisal of the most fundamental principles. Objections to the practice, on every level, are listed in detail and said to be in the spheres of theory, ideology, practicality and finance; but the

author argues that tensions surrounding the issue exactly mirror those in the broader context of school-based assessment. The resolution, for the author, is developed through the articulation of the underlying principles of assessment and she suggests that 'a sound robust system reflectively applied is far more an expression of the "best interests" (of the child) principle than an *ad hoc* approach not based on theoretical foundations and not empirically tested".

The author provides guidelines to facilitate effective practice; the framework focused on the following themes:- principles, where the specifics of the Baseline Assessment are addressed within the context of key assessment principles; audience, demanding reflection on the 'need and right to know' and reinforcing principles of partnership and criteria, a list is included which was developed by Blatchford and Cline (1992) for evaluating schemes to ensure quality. The guidelines are concluded with a flow chart representation indicating the process schools could adopt in considering a system of Baseline Assessment. As a final comment, Sheila Wolfendale refers to another of her recent publications in which she calls for an 'assessment charter' which could "constitute a Code of Assessment practice, embodying the key principles outlined and containing safeguards for all concerned, particularly at the crucial first stage, that of entry to nursery or infant school".

I approached this book with great scepticism, expecting an easy step-by-step DIY guide which I would find unacceptable, but this remarkable, brief book was packed with information, including many references to recent research, and argument leading me to question my assumptions and review my practice. The guidelines suggested pose questions rather than answer them. In following them, schools would make decisions leading to the development of appropriate measures for their individual circumstances, confident that the 'best interests' of the children are safeguarded.

Cindy Willey, Head Teacher
Wall Hall Nursery School, Hertfordshire
County Council, UK.

Themes and contribution dates

December 1995: Tolerance: Rhetoric or Reality?

Deadlines for contributions: September 1 1995

April 1996: Assessment: The Assessor, the Assessed and the Process

Deadlines for contributions: January 7 1996

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NATURE OF THE WEF

Founded in 1921, the World Education Fellowship is voluntary and non-partisan, and enjoys the status of a Unesco non-governmental organisation category B. It is open to educators, members of associated professions, and to all members of the public who have a common interest in education at all levels. The Fellowship meets biennially in international conferences, publishes books and pamphlets, and, through its national sections, participates in workshops, meetings and developmental projects. The Fellowship does not advocate any dogma; each member is free to put the principles indicated below into practice in ways which are best suited to the environment in which he/she is living and working.

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- (a) The primary purpose of education today is to help all of us to grow as self-respecting, sensitive, confident, well-informed, competent and responsible individuals in society and in the world community.
- (b) People develop these qualities when they live in mutually supportive environments where sharing purposes and problems generates friendliness, commitment and cooperation. Schools should aim to be communities of this kind.
- (c) Learners should, as early as possible, take responsibility for the management of their own education in association with and support from others. They should be helped to achieve both local involvement and a global perspective.
- (d) High achievement is best obtained by mobilising personal motivation and creativity within a context of open access to a variety of learning opportunities.
- (e) Methods of assessment should aim to describe achievement and promote self-esteem.

ACTIVITIES OF THE WEF

In order that these principles become a reality, WEF endeavours to:

- (a) identify and pursue changes in policies and practices to meet the varying individual and shared educational needs of people of all ages.
- (b) promote greater social and economic justice and equality through achieving a high standard of education for all groups worldwide.
- (c) encourage a balance between an education which nourishes the personal growth of individuals and one which stresses the social responsibility of each to work towards improving the human and physical world environment.
- (d) foster educational contacts between all peoples including people from the third world in order to further international understanding and peace.
- (e) promote education as a lifelong process for all people, regardless of sex, race, beliefs, economic status or abilities.
- (f) encourage cooperative community involvement in clarifying educational goals and undertaking educational programmes.
- (g) secure for teachers the training, facilities, opportunities and status they need to be effective, professional people.

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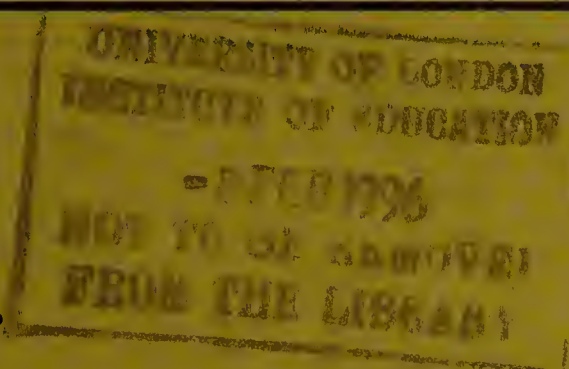
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Contributions to *New Era in Education* are welcomed. All articles are refereed. A copy of the guidelines for authors can be obtained from the Editor. Reports, short articles, or views on any aspect that relates to the principles of the World Education Fellowship are also very welcome. The Editor is anxious to receive details of good practice and responses to themes covered in the precious issues.

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EDITORIAL

Tolerance: Rhetoric or Reality?

1995 has been the Year of Tolerance, and the year that is seeing events marking the 50th anniversary of the founding of the United Nations- called by some as celebrations, others as occasions to consider where we are and where we want to be.

Education in relation to issues to do with conflict is still very marginal, but may appear in the framework of religious education, peace education, global education or multicultural education. Even when these different themes are combined, the total amount of time spent on the issue of tolerance in proportion to total time spent on teaching is insignificant. However, if there is going to be any significant change in the impact of formal education of children and students' commitment to tolerance, much more proactive and dynamic re-thinking has to take place.

There are many reasons why this has not happened on any large scale so far. Religious/cultural and other groups start being very protective and intolerant when this is put as a serious item on the agenda. This is an indication of the true competitive nature of our society. In many cases religious and community leaders put emotional pressure on the supporters to ensure they do not 'lose ground' to other ideas and faiths.

Globally this is matched by very little emphasis placed on tolerance as a theme in education. Countries like Britain that have religious education as a subject on the timetable are outnumbered by the countries that do not. The pattern of the content of the syllabuses is different. The conflicting views about religious education in Britain reflect the variation in the impact of religious education where it does take place. Some see it as teaching the children about their own religion or the religion of the state. Others see it as teaching the children about religion in general as an important aspect of human society, without any focus on the comparative significance or desirability of the different religions. Others see religious education as very important in getting children accustomed to living with people from other religions and cultures.

John Horton and Harriet Crabtree [John Horton and Harriet Crabtree (eds)(1992) **Toleration and Integration in a Multi-Faith Society**, Department

of Politics, University of York, England)] have tried to address some of the issues within the context of Britain and come up with some understanding of the issues but no solutions. For instance, Therese Murphy looked for an answer to the riddles of modern Britain, and found that the answer 'pluralistic tolerance' avoids the answers and that agreement on the meaning of tolerance is absent.

It is possible that the real answer is visible for those who want to look, but in fact do not want to, because it is complex and perhaps impossible to achieve. John Horton touches on a key point when he refers to the connection between religion and power. Many of the current conflicts in the world appear to be in the name of religion- the assassination of Prime Minister Rabin of Israel by a student who claimed he had committed the act in the name of God, is a very good example.

What this means is that educators have to stop focusing on understanding other cultures and religions as the most important contribution of education for tolerance and begin to address what it is that will REALLY bring about tolerance. In most cases it may be linked with understanding. Educators have to accept that dialogue about the origins of conflict and how different factors such as religion play a part has to become an acceptable part of the education of all the citizens. A large number of people are being 'educated' but tolerance and understanding are not very often important objectives in such education. Teachers, parents and others concerned about education have to become mentally prepared to discuss these issues in an objective fashion, without the fear of weakening their and others' beliefs in their own values.

A child of ten made a comment recently which we need to consider very seriously. Born into a Muslim family in Kenya, he was encouraged by his parents to listen carefully, and take part, in the religious education classes at the state school he was attending. Was he not worried that this might affect his belief in his own religion?

No. Learning about other values would clarify what other people's feelings were, make him think about what his own beliefs were, and learn to be tolerant.

Sneh Shah

The Editor welcomes reports of good practice: they can be short; illustrations especially example of children/students' work welcomed

ATTENTION OF AUTHORS is drawn to the welcome decision of the Guiding Committee of WEF to make authors subscribers for one year free of charge

Peace Education Program Model in Korea: A Cultural-Ecological Approach

Soon Jeong Hong, Eunsoo Shin, Sukran Choi

The importance of early experience and education on child development has long been recognized. The traditional family role has been responsible for providing necessary education for cognitive, physical and moral development of young children. However, in recent years, the educational function of a family has been deteriorating with rapid industrialization, changes in family structure, and employment of mothers with young children.

Today's children are not only exposed to the drastic change of society and the deteriorating educational function of the family, but also to ever increasing daily violence compared to the past. Daily experiences of children are influenced by violent and aggressive environment, compounded by the fact that children are constantly exposed to audio-visual media (such as television programs, video war games, cartoons, etc.) than attending school. Children experience violence indirectly from models of the violent programs in media and their viewing habits are established by the age of three (Clements, 1985), as well as their understanding of specifically how conflicts are resolved. Viewing violence may increase emotional arousal. Exposing children to violent and aggressive scenes could stimulate and arouse them to aggressive behaviour. In the world war is often chosen as a way of resolving conflict among countries. It contributes to a climate in which children are taught that violence is an acceptable way of resolving differences among people. Thus, repeated exposure to violence increases tolerance for aggression and can result in desensitization to the aggression and even legitimize violence (Clements & Nastasi, 1993). The violent themes in TV cartoons and video games expose children to violent acts over and over, no matter how inappropriate they are (Carlsson-Paige & Levine, 1992). In early years play contributes in important ways to the development of a child. Even in a violent play children try out a variety of roles and they learn impulse-control. According to Wiehert (1989), while children engage in war play they are influenced by violent scenes.

Recently, the importance of studying the cultural-ecological context in which children develop, and the influence of the setting on children's behaviour has been recognized. Wertsch (1987) suggested that the study of any aspect of human consciousness requires a research that recognizes the socio-historical and cultural embeddedness of the subject. Bronfenbrenner (1979, 1986) conceptualized the environment as a nested set of spheres of influence on children, initiating a rethinking of the way in which early childhood professionals view the environmental influence on young children.

Cultural-ecological theories emphasize the complexity of studying the ecological context and its relation to child development. **This model emphasizes the effect of cultural or macrosystem level variables on children's behaviour** and development as well as the effects of intracultural systems and settings.

Unfortunately, we know very little about the cultural-ecological environment and its effect on the experiences of Korean children. Thus, it is necessary to investigate further.

Based on the socio-cultural ecological approach, a study undertook the following: first, the analysis of Korean cultural ecological environment of three, four and five-year old children was conducted while focusing on social conflicts and conflict resolution. Second, a peace education program based on the socio-cultural ecological analysis was developed (Hong, Shin & Choi, in press)

In the study three factors were considered: (1) cultural, social and economic factors outside children's direct experience; (2) the experience of immediate physical settings (e.g. play environment, play materials, books, games, videos, TV programs); (3) the social interaction and relationships that children experience with people, focusing on the conflict resolution.. Along with these factors we examined the following questions: What is the play environment? What starts children's conflicts? What is at issue in children's conflicts? What behaviour and strategies occur during the course of conflict

among children? How do parents and teachers deal with social conflicts? What are the outcomes of such conflicts?

Using open-ended questions, 500 children who were attending the early childhood education program were interviewed in depth about their ideas and experiences with conflict and conflict resolution. In addition, we distributed questionnaires to the teachers and parents of the children about their methods of approaching the children when conflicts occurred in their homes and classrooms. The data were analyzed by frequencies, percentile, and X.

The results of the study suggested the following. First, the Korean cultural-ecological environment was revealed to be physical and verbally violent at home and in school. Second, the social conflicts among three, four and five-year olds started when it involved physical and verbal attacks, not sharing play materials, teasing, or the interruption of ongoing play. Third, across the age, physical attack was considered to be the most frequently occurring conflict. Finally, we found that Korean children responded in two ways when conflicts arose. Firstly, they responded aggressively; hitting or teasing. Secondly, they often lost their emotional control; crying and tattling to adults.

Based on the result of the study, we tried to develop some appropriate principles for peace education. Peace, in this study, is defined as developing alternatives to violence as a means of resolving conflict. Thus, peace education is a broader concept which affects almost every aspect of the teaching/learning processes. It emphasizes certain values such as cooperation, negotiation, respect for self and others, as well as resolving conflict peacefully (Carlsson-Paige & Levin, 1985). The early childhood educators had been concerned about how to teach peace in a classroom for a long time. Peace education must begin when children are very young; adults need to work with their children to help them to understand non-violent living skills (Hopkins & Winter, 1990).

Based on the above theory, the Korean Peace Education program was constructed in six sessions of activities for the pre-school classrooms, emphasizing coping strategies such as social conflicts, cooperation, and negotiation and communication skills.

In our programs, three key concepts were emphasized: self-control, peaceful communication skills, peace-maker attitude and skills. The first key concept is self-control. Children often blame others when conflict arises, thus it is necessary to teach children to take personal responsibility and accept their part in conflict situation. One characteristic of children's thinking from approximately three to seven years old, is their egocentric nature. Young children often interpret their world from their subjective point of view, not coordinating multiple perspectives of a situation. Through increase in understanding of the world and other people, children can have broadened perspectives about others and learn to understand their point of view.

As emphasized in the second concept, young children need to know that verbal expression also can hurt others. The way we use language plays a role in determining our values and attitudes. Using accurate words to describe our own feelings, clarifying the feelings and identifying them by using language to control the feelings better. Therefore, enhancing non-violent skills, empowering emotional control and using verbal communication skills are necessary.

As the for the third concept, in order to build a foundation for peaceful attitudes and skills it is important for children to develop skills they can use in resolving various conflicts. Conflict resolution skills must be practised in a wide range of context, thus children can relate to their skills from their experiences.

Our program was introduced to the classroom three days per week for a six week period, There were six units each with a different theme, developed on the basis of the basic elements. The program consisted of three parts: a weekly unit, where basic elements were introduced as a whole group activity; free play time; and finally, discussion and evaluation period. The following basic elements were introduced:

- 1 not to hurt self and others, verbally or physically
- 2 to work cooperatively while respecting self and others
- 3 to control emotion and use words
- 4 to develop empowering communication skills
- 5 to live peacefully and be aware of the diversity of the global society.

A teacher introduced the theme of the week as a whole group activity by using stories, books and puppets to stimulate children's interests.

After the whole group activity, children were engaged in various individual and small group activities during free play time for about forty minutes. Dramatic play, puppet play, music and movement, games, art, and books were provided as small group activities.

During free play, children were encouraged to choose interested areas (such as games, puppets, books and arts). Often, dramatic play provided opportunities for children to enhance cognitive, emotional and social skills. Puppets offered many opportunities in both speaking and listening areas and were used for capturing children's attention. They were used to tell a story, to help children develop problem-solving skills by increasing sensitivity to problems, or suggesting alternative solution thinking. Art provided a valuable context to encourage children to draw pictures that talk about personal events in their lives. Children were encouraged to "draw about the time when...", for example, they were angry with another child, afraid of conflicts, and so forth.

Stories written for children are also valuable resources; selected books can show how other children are coping when social conflict arises. Children and teachers can discuss the cause and consequences of story characters' behaviour and then link them with children's own experiences.

Children can use what they see in their lives as a foundation for constructing an understanding of how people treat each other. Children develop an understanding of conflict and how to resolve it through a long process of construction. New learning continues to build on children's earlier ideas through a dynamic process (Kohlberg & Lickona, 1990). By learning the ability of non-violent skills with others and resolving social conflicts peacefully, children can see how the role they play relates to the roles played by others. Moreover, how the way they carry out the role-play affects others.

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Education For Renewal: Changing Teaching For Learning Worldwide

Diane Montgomery

Introduction

In a report prepared for the Organisation of Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) Skilbeck (1989) wrote that although many innovations had taken place in recent years education had not adapted to the structural changes of the last decades. The changes included a move from selective schools to a general school model and a refocus from education for a minority of academically able learners to mass education. Although more progress had been made at primary than at secondary level he concluded that there had been little adaptation to individual differences with an estimated 80 to 90 per cent of classroom instruction presented in the formal lecture style. The general goal was the acquisition of a body of knowledge. He concluded that very few schools had connected knowledge and skills to actual human problems such as ecological and environmental issues, war and peace, human values, culture and consumer awareness.

There had been little willingness to move away from traditional 'basics' at the secondary level. What changes were to be found happened locally and were not systematically planned or centrally controlled so that progress was meagre.

In schools and colleges around the world there is a similar picture where instructional practice presupposes a didactic theory of knowledge, learning and literacy. Teachers lecture and drill, students listen, recall and reiterate. The curriculum is fragmented into subject domains each with a technical and large vocabulary and content. Students are not required to integrate their personal knowledge with the curriculum content and rarely have to apply it to new and different situations. They are expected to believe what is written in the textbooks and what the teacher says.

Whilst these old grammar school, lecture-style ideas were no doubt enjoyed in their schooldays by those who now govern and administer the affairs of state they were particularly stultifying for many more creative learners and were wholly unsuitable for average and slower learners and those fifty per cent with learning difficulties of some minor or major kind (SED 1978).

We know, in fact, that these methods are particularly unsuitable even for able students, according to Rogers and Span (1993). Nevertheless they maintain that 90 per cent of pupils in schools

and students in higher education are still taught world wide by didactic methods and in many countries special emphasis is placed upon the rote learning of vast quantities of information without any need to understand or apply it. All this is despite the fact that many employers in the poorer and richer nations now realise that they must increasingly generate workers who can think critically, who can reason and work in a flexible and creative manner (Stonier 1983).

On the social and political fronts both poorer and richer countries face the need to solve complex problems. To do this would require major conceptual shifts by large masses of people in relation to over-population, environment, religious and political differences, territorial conflict, global competition and economics. This is unlikely to be achieved by the uneducated or those trained in fragmented disciplinary and school subject-centred reductive thinking and simplistic views of the world. These issues and problems are interdisciplinary and multi dimensional and can only be resolved by increased capacity world-wide for reflective and critical appreciation and some creative and inductive thought. It would be irresponsible to rely on those whose native abilities lead them in this direction for they are reckoned to be a very small proportion even of the highly able.

The important question we have to resolve is how do we organise and provide an education for critical thinking which will reach all learners and which can spread world wide. It is quite clear from reports and interviews that teachers actually do believe that their methods are achieving problem solving thinking even when they are not. The situation is no better in higher education where many students do not have the necessary study skills or problem solving and critical thinking abilities to enable them to profit from their studies. Higher education courses in the main also do not teach these skills. Companies have to train their staffs to develop listening and communication skills, team building and problem solving abilities whether they have degrees or not.

There are, however, lessons which can be learnt from the area of gifted education in which billions of dollars have been invested and which is a world wide area of study in the race for nation supremacy. Despite its unwholesome origins and the potential once again for its abuse as an elitist education, what has been learnt and what is of concern in this area

has a fundamental significance for general education if it is to be one of quality and develop critical thinking and empathetic human beings.

An education in critical thinking, metacognitive skills and learner managed learning shows us the direction in which all educational establishments must move.

Critical Thinking Theory

Paul (1990) has contributed in a major way to the analysis of the theory explaining that critical thinking is the art of thinking about your thinking so as to make it more precise, accurate and relevant, consistent and fair.

This had been expressed as 'Metacognition' by Flavell in 1979. He argued that thinking about how we are thinking and learning whilst we are doing so contributes in a major way to intelligence. If we can promote metacognitive activities especially in those who would not normally use them we could in these terms be likely to be promoting and enhancing peoples' intelligence or at least their intelligent action.

Most education world wide is geared to inducing monological thinking which is single track and context defined because of the overuse of didactic teaching methods whereas critical thinking is:

- the art of constructive scepticism
- the art of identifying and reversing bias, prejudice and one sidedness of thought
- the art of self directed, in depth, rational thinking
- thinking which rationally certifies what we know and makes clear where we are ignorant (Paul 1990 p32)

Research by Wang and Lindvall (1984) showed that self monitoring and self regulatory activities not only contributed to improved acquisition of subject content but also to improved generalisation and transfer of knowledge and skills. They also gave students a sense of personal agency, a feeling of being in control of their own learning. Self regulatory activities were defined by Brown, Bransford, Ferrara and Campione (1983) as including planning, predicting outcomes and scheduling time and resources. Monitoring included testing, revising and rescheduling with checking to evaluate outcomes using criteria developed by the individual and also those which were externally defined.

Failure to develop higher order cognitive or thinking skills in schools and colleges was according to Resnick (1989) not surprising for it had never been the goal of mass education. We can see even now education for the masses being driven to becoming lower order didactics leading to lower order thinking and incapability in the 21st century whilst the politicians speak of raising standards and instilling the disciplines of subjects, thoughts and actions. Paul has given a 17 section analysis of the differences between these types of education. Extracts from three of them will serve to clarify some of the key differences. His general conclusions were that the pace of change is accelerating but educational institutions have not kept up. Schools have historically been most conservative, uncritically passing down from generation to generation outmoded didactic, lecture and drill based models of instruction. The result is that students, on the

Paul's Theory of Knowledge, Learning and Literacy	
Didactic Theory	Critical Theory
The Fundamental Needs Of Students	
To be taught more or less what to think not how to think; are given details, definitions, explanations, rules, guidelines and reasons to learn.	To be taught HOW not what to think that it is important to focusing on significant content, but accompanied by live issues that stimulate students to gather, analyse and assess that content.
The Nature of Knowledge	
That knowledge is independent of thinking that generates, organises and applies it. Students are said to know when they can repeat what has been covered. Students are given the finished products of someone else's thought.	That all knowledge of content is generated, organised, applied and analysed, synthesised and assessed by thinking; that gaining knowledge is unintelligible without such thought. Students are given opportunities to puzzle their way through to knowledge and explore its justification as part of the process of learning.
Model of the Educated Person	
Educated, literate people are fundamentally repositories of content analogous to an encyclopaedia or a data bank, directly comparing situations in the world with facts in storage. Texts, assessments, lectures, discussions are content dense and detail-orientated.	An educated literate person is fundamentally a repository of strategies, principles, concepts and insights embedded in processes of thought. Much of what is known is constructed as needed, not prefabricated. This is a seeker and a questioner rather than a true believer. Teachers model insightful consideration of questions and problems, and facilitate fruitful discussions.

whole, do not learn how to work by, or think for themselves. They do not learn how to gather, analyse, synthesise and assess information. They do not learn to enter sympathetically into the thinking of others nor how to deal rationally with conflicting points of view. They do not learn to become critical readers, writers, speakers or listeners and so do not become literate in the proper sense of the word. They do not critically analyse their own experience and would find it difficult to explain the basis of their own beliefs and so do not gain much genuine knowledge. They therefore lack the traits of mind of a genuinely educated person; intellectual humility, courage, integrity, perseverance and faith in reason. Fortunately he identified a means of overcoming these problems which he called the application of Critical Theory. He emphasised the fact that normal individuals do not naturally think critically nor are inspired by rationality. They do not engage in reflective thinking automatically. They have to be encouraged and helped to do so at all levels of education. It is applicable to HOW people learn with teachers as models of the investigator after truth and fairness, the reflective questioner, the opener of minds. Minds are apparently happy to adopt biases, prejudices, stereotypes and short cuts to thinking and will state these authoritatively quite genuinely believing them to be truths and do not react well to being challenged on them.

Paul maintains that as societies become less isolated and more complex, lack of rationality at both global and local levels becomes increasingly dangerous for the maintenance of human existence. To combat the dangers of didactic education which brings with it its own kind of ignorance and prejudice, education world wide needs to change.

Another area of research worth our attention in this context is the studies of EXPERT KNOWLEDGE AND BEHAVIOUR. Able learners behave like experts in the way that they acquire and use knowledge. Studying how experts learn has shown ways in which other learners might be helped to learn and so become 'experts'. According to Nickerson, Perkins and Smith (1985,p101), 'Experts not only know more, they know they know more, they know better how to use what they know. What they know is better organised and more readily accessible and they know better how to know more still.'

The various forms of training offered need to have the objective of training in metacognition and in organising what one knows to take account of new knowledge and skills. The objective of training in metacognition is thus to make one a skilful user of knowledge. Nickerson et al concluded that if training

in metacognitive skills is done effectively it should have considerable pay off: 'In particular inasmuch as these skills are very general, a success-ful effort to improve them should beneficially affect performance on a wide range of tasks.' (Nickerson et al., 1985 p104)

It is not easy, however to become an expert problem solver according to Larkin et al (1980) because of the semantic knowledge load and it is often only after the problem has been solved that one can learn effectively how it should have been done. Nevertheless the process of revisiting problems and solutions needs to be built into teaching and learning strategies as well as how not to cover up and ignore mistakes but to learn from them. These will make a far more effective means of achieving higher order cognitive skills than didactic methods. Precisely how teachers are to organise their students learning to achieve these higher order objectives is not always made clear but a number of methods have been identified for primary and secondary schools (Montgomery 1990, 1994) and for students in higher education generally and the teacher education students (Montgomery 1993a,1995). These methods have been referred to as COGNITIVE PROCESS PEDAGOGIES or strategies. In this context DIFFERENTIATION using cognitive process methodologies to present the normal curriculum can enable teachers to meet the needs of all students from nursery through and into higher education, the workplace or the pastures, forests, fields and seas where people work.

Cognitive Process Pedagogies

In developing these pedagogies it was necessary to define and redefine the nature of teaching and learning to try to get at core concepts about 'good' teaching. Surprisingly there was little written which really addressed the subject. Teachers themselves held views such as 'developing the child to the full potential' and 'covering the syllabus' neither of which provided prescriptions for good classroom practice. Practice itself seemed to be governed by fashions and innovations without any relationship between these and theory and research.

The view of good teaching which was made explicit to the students was as follows: 'Good teaching is occurring where students learn most of what the teachers intended and much more besides, where they continue to study and pursue the topic long after the session ends, where they do not have to be made to work but want to do so. Good teaching motivates students to learn.' (Montgomery 1990 p60)

Motivation was thus the key concept and so

teaching methods had to be designed which would develop intrinsic motivation and create the will or want to learn which didactic methods would not do. Didactics so often sets up the need to use extrinsic motivators such as rewards and punishments to keep the learners on the task.

The essentials of teaching suggested were that when you teach something it automatically carries with it the assumption that the learners have learned or are learning it (Hirst 1966). The implications of this were that:

- telling is not teaching
- lecturing is not teaching

for when you tell students information you cannot assume that they learn it. The formal lecture is a very poor learning device and leads one to question seriously the 2 and 3 hour lectures often given in Higher Education courses. As lecturers originally did not need to be trained teachers it is perhaps not surprising they have not addressed these issues. They also seem to make the assumption that their students are autonomous learners and as can be shown

(Thomas and Harri-Augstein 1985) this is seldom the case. Able or autonomous learners have some key attributes according to Freeman (1985). They are :

- self organised learners
- autonomous learners
- probe text for deep meaning

Thomas and Harri-Augstein (1985) suggested that able learners hold “learning conversations” with themselves and this enables them to profit from their own experiences. We could go on to argue that if we can teach other learners to do the same then we might enable them to become able learners too. In the area of evaluation and enhancement of teaching and learning skills this has in fact been demonstrated (Montgomery 1984, 1994).

In contrast they suggested that slower learners are in “robot” mode and can only operate old and well tried learning routines. Span (1988) suggested that most learners need help to tap into their metacognitive events if they are to become able learners thus our teaching and learning methods needed to incorporate these directly.

The early cognitive-process pedagogy studies led to the definition of two central objectives in teaching (Montgomery 1981).

- to enable pupils to think efficiently and
- to express those thoughts succinctly in a variety of modes

Changing the emphasis from product-based subject learning to process approaches by defining the theory in these terms made it necessary to seek and define methods and strategies which would deliver these

objectives. Inserting the word ‘cognitive’ indicated that there was intellectual subject content to be mastered, the techniques were not content free. Cognitive-process methodologies are the core of developmental differentiation and they enable it to be realised. Cognitive process teaching methods (Montgomery 1983, 1990) are based in Critical Thinking Theory (Resnick 1989, Paul 1990) and are the means by which higher order thinking and metacognitive skills can be developed through curriculum activities. We called them ‘brain engage activities.’

Over a period of time a number of teaching methods were evolved which were found to engage brain whatever the intellectual developmental level (Piaget 1952) of the child . The Taxonomy of Educational Objectives constructed by Bloom (1956) was used to help us assess the levels of operation which the materials were able to achieve without teacher intervention in the form of judicious questioning. Success was counted as operations at the higher levels of Analysis, Synthesis and Evaluation. Most of our tasks commanded operations at all Bloom’s levels and could enable even average ability five year olds to operate at abstract or formal operational levels.

The Cognitive Process Pedagogies were:

- Games and Simulations
- Cognitive Study Skills
- Real Problem Solving and Investigative Learning
- Collaborative Learning
- Experiential Learning
- Language Experience Methods

The Nature Of Differentiation

Differentiation is concerned with the delivery of the curriculum and its assessment. In a critical review of research Weston (1992) found 10 elements to differentiation as follows:-

- it is premised upon diversity
- it is multidimensional
- it applies to individuals
- it applies to all learners
- it is diagnostic
- it challenges our expectations and preconceived notions of individuals
- it challenges classroom relationships and offers more varied social patterns
- it is integral to effective teaching
- it is relevant to all teachers
- it requires a long term whole school strategy

It seems to me that differentiation in practice can be organised under two main headings - STRUCTURAL or systems approaches and INTEGRAL in which the basic curriculum is

individualised and forms a whole life-style approach (Montgomery 1995).

The structural methods all involve accelerating the learner through curriculum contents in various ways. Even some enrichment materials merely teach what the learner could expect to learn in another phase of education, for example a primary pupils might be given sections of the secondary school or even university curriculum in the periods allocated to 'enrichment'. This form of provision is 'bolted on' to the normal classroom activities whereas a more sophisticated form which is integral to the normal curriculum is what is required. Because it is integral or built in to the mainstream work all children can have an opportunity to profit from the enrichment.

Most structural approaches tend to be product or content based whereas integral approaches have to be concerned with process, in particular cognitive processes.

Three Models of Curriculum Differentiation

- **BY INPUTS** The setting of different tasks at different levels of difficulty suitable for different levels of achievement.

- **BY OUTPUTS** The setting of common tasks that can be responded to in a positive way by all students.

- **DEVELOPMENTAL** The setting of common tasks to which all students can contribute their own inputs and so progress from surface to deep learning and thus be enabled to achieve more advanced learning outcomes.

Of the first two perhaps the best that can be said is that they offer more than the formal or didactic methods of teaching to the middle but there are inbuilt disadvantages of which teachers need to be aware. In differentiation by inputs teachers provide some core work in which all pupils may participate but after that they provide different work within the same context at different levels - simpler conceptual and practice work for the slower learners and more complex problem solving extension work for the able groups. What has to be appreciated is that in this system the students doing the easier work can begin to feel lower in ability and value. The rest of the class quickly recognise that they are doing easier work. This can in the long run prove academically handicapping for these students come to expect that they can never achieve a high standard in any sphere of activity and cease to try so that they compound their difficulties and begin to fall further behind. The able students in this system begin to feel special for they are doing the 'clever' work and can develop inflated opinions of themselves and their abilities and begin to look down on the other children even poking fun at them. All of these attitudes are

destructive and wasteful so that none of the groups are motivated to develop their abilities and talents to the full. Only those with great strength of character or individualism can survive these social pressures and develop freely and these are few. In the Arts, talented people are often reported as very overbearing and self opinionated. They presumably had the 'bigheadedness' to continue to believe in themselves and their art when everyone else did not and so they survived. It is sad to think of all those talented people who did not have such pigheadedness and self confidence and who have succumbed to the education system. A second and major problem is that it is the teacher who has to select who will do the advanced or less advanced work and this is prior to any testing or evaluation and thus too much hangs upon the teacher's diagnostic skills. There are in fact a number of studies which have shown that teachers need a considerable amount of training to do this successfully and that the majority of teachers do not receive any form of training in this area.

The second view of differentiation is where all students can participate in the same task but there are different assessment tasks set; the children do the same assessment tasks at which they progressively fail; or the assessment criteria have different levels against which the work is marked. Often in this latter at public examination time it is a big shock for students to find they have been entered for a lower level qualification. Often before this at each assessment stage or during continuous assessment the differences in the outcome achieved may become so clear that it also becomes a less favoured option. In addition when able students are set the same task as all the rest it may appear so mundane that they give a low level formatted response and can regularly underfunction.

It is my view that these forms of differentiation are no more than a primary school within-class selective education system with all the potential for social and political division which was witnessed in the older systems of both selective and comprehensive secondary education. The method which is recommended is **DEVELOPMENTAL DIFFERENTIATION** but it is not simple to effect and cannot be presented as a 'soundbite'.

Developmental Differentiation

Developmental differentiation takes account of the range of individual differences and assumes that even in so-called homogeneous groups the range of differences in thinking abilities, language and literary skills, social, emotional and perceptual development will vary considerably as does the experience and

learning history which each child brings to the curriculum task. In order to take account of all this, a more modern and relevant teaching theory and practice had to be developed. It was called COGNITIVE PROCESS PEDAGOGY to direct attention to the key area of cognition and avoid the criticisms of process methods per se which critics liked to regard as content free. The basic curriculum which each teacher taught could remain the same, it was the method of teaching it which had to change and there had to be a much greater emphasis upon student learning.

The methods we used to change teachers teaching strategies and give them a knowledge of thinking and metacognition have now been built into two Distance Learning Masters programmes (Montgomery 1993). The definition of what we were trying to achieve in developmental differentiation was as follows: DD involves setting curriculum activities which will reveal each individuals' abilities and needs. This would then enable the design or modification of the next stage of activities to meet those needs and give a better match with the overall curriculum objectives. These aims and objectives were best met when cognitive process pedagogies were used which promoted and developed higher order thinking abilities in curriculum subjects. During the learning process the teacher could further modify the task or promote intellectual challenge and motivation by positive cognitive intervention (PCI). In this interaction it was possible to obtain direct observational feedback on each child's performance to build up a profile of development and aid curriculum modification and development.

Thus the key features of developmental differentiation are:

- a diagnostic use of the curriculum
- a respect for individual differences
- the use of cognitive process teaching methods
- a developmental use of positive cognitive intervention (PCI)
- the use of observational methods
- assessment which is both formative and diagnostic

In the process of development it has been necessary to design materials and methods at two levels. The first was to design teaching materials with built-in cognitive process methods for the teachers to use with the children so that they could feel the different effect and the strength of the positive response from the pupils. The second was to redesign our training courses to enable teachers to design the methods and materials for themselves

Cognitive Study Skills

The following examples can apply to textual, visual

and performance material.

- Locating the main points and subordinate ones
- Flow charting
- Completion activities
- Prediction activities
- Sequencing
- Comparing and contrasting
- Drafting and editing
- Organising - tabulating, classifying, tabulating, ordering, diagramming, categorising
- Drawing inferences and abstractions
- Recognising intent, bias and propaganda Planning
- Managing one's learning and keeping it on task and on schedule

These sorts of study skills are different from those which involve lower order activities such as using a dictionary or an index and finding one's way about a book and what its main contents are, or recovering factual information from text and making notes to write a summary or an essay. Some examples follow of cognitive study skills from the Study Skills and Learning Strategies training book (Montgomery 1983b)

Study skills are a form of self directed learning and frequently involve active work on textual material. Although reading skills are taught in primary school it is not usual to teach higher order reading and cognitive skills there or in secondary school although they are considered to be essential to the educated person and a requirement for success in higher education. Even able children do not automatically develop them although Freeman (1991) noted that the characteristics of her able learners were that they probed text to seek deeper meaning and did not learn by rote.

With study skills it is very important to incorporate them into all curriculum subject areas rather than try to teach them as a separate skills course. Bolt-on provision has been shown to be ineffective and non transferable (Meek and Thomson 1987).

Real Problem Solving and Investigative Learning

Human nature is such that if you present a person with an open ended situation in which the answer to a problem is not given the mind automatically tries to solve the problem and make closure unless it is ill. This notion of the human as scientific problem solver and investigator from birth was put forward by Kelly (1955). Although not everything can be converted into a problem there is considerable scope for doing so across the curriculum. Some examples follow: In didactics a study of 'Homes' usually consists of showing the children pictures of different types of buildings in which people have lived and

getting the children to describe them e.g. Homes on Stilts. The cognitive process strategy is to show them pictures of the terrain, probably show the same clip of video of a monsoon, describe the flora and fauna of the the region, and the tools available to the locals. The pupils, in small collaborative groups are set to design the most appropriate form of home for those conditions. They present their designs after 15 minutes - house boats, homes on stilts or treehouses with a justification and discuss the best fit solution before researching what the locals actually do. This form of learning is more memorable and meaningful to the pupils as well as encouraging argument, team work, organising and planning skills.

Characteristic of the approach is that there needs to be plenty of content material around to research to help develop ideas and strategies or verify solutions. Because the activities start from the children's own ideas and knowledge each is building up their own cognitive structures and knowledge hierarchies and can interrogate the various sources. The teacher in this setting is not the only interactive resource but the manager and facilitator of learning.

Experiential Learning

Kolb in 1984 defined the experiential learning cycle in which it was important that practical experience had to be reflected upon in order to achieve higher order understanding and learning. The learning spiral detailed here suggests that learning is not circular returning the learner to the same point each time. It is suggested that at each turn, the experience, the talking about the experience and the reflecting upon the learning and doing adds to the sum of knowledge and changes the processes and the understanding in an additive way. in the first cycle the talk is about the content and method of what was learnt in the second cycle the learners reflect upon the ways in which the learning was accomplished, this is the metacognitive level. 'Learning occurs not in the doing but in the reflection and conceptualisation that takes place during and after the event'. Kolb (1984)

Experiential learning involves learning by doing or ACTION LEARNING. It is surprising how much students in schools and colleges remain passive in the learning process and yet how much more effective their learning could be if they were direct participants. This has long been recognised in early years education and primary (elementary) education in Britain. Kolb (1984) showed that experience dictates that unless the learner reflects upon the learning during and after the event it is not so effective and meaningful.

Although learners may learn without direct experience by observing and modelling others, and able learners can be particularly adept at this; this does not mean that direct experience is not useful. The experience does however have to be cognitively challenging otherwise it is no more than other mundane activities. Simply manipulating clay to make animals can soon pall able children need more advanced designs, purposes and goals. This can be promoted by detailed observation of form and structure and remodelling, redesigning and playing with ideas and the materials. Creative persons always emphasize the role of detailed study and play in their work.

Collaborative Learning

Collaboration means that students work with each other towards the framing and design of problems and strategies as well as in their resolution or solution. Each contributes some part to the whole. Quite often the process is called 'co operative learning' Either term is appropriate but frequently what is meant to be co operative or group work is more often observed as students sitting together doing individual work. In Britain it is common to find students sitting in groups of four to six working round tables in both primary and secondary schools. English research studies showed that interactions within the groups were mainly between children of the same sex and not related to the task in hand (Galton et al 1985, Bennett 1986). Students in groups on average spent two thirds of their time on individual work interacting with no one. Only 5 per cent of the time was spent talking about the task and then it was likely to be requests for information. It was in fact the exception rather than the rule to find a group working as one. Bennett's studies which recorded the task in detail showed that little talk which did take place was task-enhancing. When Wheldall et al (1981) had looked at placing pupils in rows as opposed to groups the major finding was that this increased the quantity of output and the quality was maintained. The influence of peer tutoring and constructive peer tutoring can thus be said to be negligible. This does not devalue collaborative group work. What is at fault is the method of pedagogy used by the teacher which does not induce or create a need for group problem solving or group work. Because of the lack of understanding of this issue there is a pressure upon teachers from the Government in the UK to retreat from group work and place children back in rows and give them more formal didactic teaching from the early years.

Research studies on the effectiveness of group work have been relatively limited not only in number but

in design and preparation of the appropriate content and process. The interactive aspects are designed to:

- model the REAL problem solving which we need to do in adult life
- occupy a small period of time in an individual lesson or small slots in a series
- take no more time than traditional didactic methods would when all inputs, rehearsal and recording time is taken into account.
- offer opportunities for more creative and original contributions from individuals sparked off by their interactions.
- offer more open ended responses in the learning process.
- use and link new material to students prior experience and knowledge.

Where the collaborative approach is designed to take longer then the gains in terms of higher order learning and the strength of that learning should be sufficient to merit this. This will often be the point where a new subject area or topic is being introduced.

Bennett (1986) using a computer programme to provide decision making tasks observed triads of children in homogeneous and heterogeneous groups and found that the high attaining children understood the decisions and attained 95 per cent success rate whichever type of group they worked in. Thus working with average and low attainers did not damage their capacity for achievement, a concern which has frequently been raised. 'In this cooperative decision making mode on-task behaviour was very high, and instructional talk was very high in relation to procedural or management talk. There was an indication of a link between the amount of talk, particularly amount of instructional talk (by the children), and pupil understanding.' Bennett (1986 p.16)

One of the strongest influences on the design of our work on collaborative learning was the work of Bowers and Wells (1985) of the Kingston Friends Workshop Group. This work of the Quakers originated in the riots and violence in America in the 1960s. It was based on the view that the seeds of conflict were sown at an early age and that it was important to help adults and children to develop constructive solutions to them. They developed a structure and three main themes as a basis for problem solving in conflict resolution and bridge building between people. These ideas they expressed in the 'Iceberg Principle'.

These activities lead towards working with pupils on the total process of problem solving. Each stage is followed through with suggested strategies:

Stages in problem solving

- definition

- expressing feelings
- creating options
- goal setting
- actioning one resolution
- verifying, evaluating and modifying a solution

Brainstorming, role play and a wide range of action learning strategies are illustrated in Bowers and Wells to illustrate and promote co operative learning.

Collaborative learning, when it is properly organised and targeted, can have a constructive effect on learning. It helps develop language skills and social control and is an effective outlet for emotional tensions for it provides legitimate channels for their expression and release. Collaborative strategies provide the experience in listening, speaking and interpersonal skills which the lone teacher with a class of thirty or forty cannot do. This is particularly important for even the most able do not know what they think until they try to explain it to someone else. Collaborative work of this specific kind encourages the development of peer tutoring and teaching skills. It also provides the environment in which other learners can challenge and ask questions of their peers when they do not understand without being diminished or devalued. This improves the quality of the peer tutoring and interpersonal skills over a period of time as well as enhancing the development of higher order cognitive skills.

Learning to listen and communicate one's own ideas and feelings to others is a valuable part of the educative process but it is too often overlooked in an overfilled content curriculum to the detriment of an individual's life chances.

Changing The Role of The Teacher

The methods described show that the teacher has to learn to change from lecturing in the didactic mode to becoming:

- facilitator
- counsellor
- tutor
- manager
- teacher
- co ordinator
- follower
- leader
- resource

In association with this there has to be a change in teaching style and approach to create an appropriate emotional climate in the classroom (Montgomery 1989). This climate has to be POSITIVE and SUPPORTIVE so that students are encouraged to succeed but not made to feel small if they fail. Their self image or self concept needs to be built up in a

positive manner so that they have a sense of self worth and feel valued. They need to be helped to develop a realistic sense of self which is not negative and destructive. All of this can be achieved in the way in which they are treated by the teacher and in how they are encouraged to behave towards each other-with respect, with fairness and with a degree of kindness. When this is accompanied by intellectual challenge and an enjoyable learning atmosphere it has been shown (Purkey 1970) that children's self esteem is enhanced. It is only those with the lowest sense of self worth who turn to attention seeking and disruption or who become emotionally disturbed and withdrawn (Wilson 1980). Cognitive process methodologies give teachers and learners the opportunity to work together in these different ways and enable them to interact in positive and supportive manner. The crowd control methods of didactics offer few such opportunities.

Conclusion

World wide environmental, economic, political and religious issues require a change world wide in how peoples think and respond to them. It is suggested that an Education for Renewal such as has been described can make a significant contribution to this change.

In this context the nature of critical thinking has been described, the methods by which it may be achieved through education have been defined as Cognitive Process Pedagogies and the quality of the emotional climate of the learning environment has been outlined. Teachers themselves have to have such an education before they can create a similar learning environment for their students.

The main theme which runs through what has been discussed and which The World Education Fellowship has always promoted at all levels of education is that we must CHANGE TEACHING FOR LEARNING it is this which will help us achieve AN EDUCATION FOR RENEWAL...

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Primary Teachers and the Primary Curriculum

Dr Mary Thornton

Introduction

Following the Plowden Report (1967), particular ways of thinking about the primary curriculum became established in Britain. As a result, in the minds of some conservative politicians at least, there remains a continuing view of the British primary curriculum as essentially and ideologically child-centred. But is it? The perception of child-centredness is rarely confirmed by empirical data. On the contrary, much research (eg HMI 1978, Galton et al 1980, Alexander 1992, Webb 1993) indicates that the primary curriculum in practice, in Britain, differs significantly from its conventional characterisation as child-centred. Nevertheless, the British primary curriculum continues to be perceived as child-centred, having particular characteristics such as prioritising individualised teaching, the child as learner, children's needs, learning through experience, an integrated curriculum, choice and freedom for pupils and democratic relations between pupils and teachers. Its practice has also been likened to mothering (Plowden 1967, Bernstein 1975, Walkerdine 1984/6, Steedman 1985).

If educational principles, such as educating the whole child in a mutually supportive school environment, are to be furthered, it is important that current curriculum practice and the reasons for it are clearly understood. The research on which this article is based suggests that the primary curriculum in Britain is, in practice, a mixture of different organisational features and teaching strategies that do not conform to any particular theoretical model of the curriculum (child-centred or otherwise) but which does follow a fairly clear pattern. It will be argued that the curriculum as practised results from the external constraints under which primary schools and their teachers operate, and that this is reflected in the low status accorded to primary teachers' specialist expertise in the teaching and learning of young children and breadth of curriculum coverage.

Research Strategy

A small-scale empirical study of the primary curriculum at the level of school/classroom practice was undertaken in twenty-two primary schools in one education division in S W Hertfordshire. The research had the support of a newly appointed local primary adviser who shared the researcher's interest in determining the nature of curriculum practice in

schools in this division, which borders outer London Local Education Authorities and has predominantly urban and suburban catchment areas.

The data gathered indicates patterns and characteristics of the primary curriculum that diverge significantly from those suggested by theories of child-centredness but which may more readily typify it. The research was undertaken between 1988 and 1990, as the implementation of the National Curriculum began. While schools at this time were clearly facing dramatic changes in the amount of direction about curriculum content received from central government, and had begun to include a greater emphasis on National Curriculum subjects such as science, they had yet to significantly alter the manner in which they organised and delivered the primary curriculum.

The research sought to develop an understanding of the curriculum as organised in primary schools, and as practised in individual classrooms; of practitioners' definitions of primary curriculum specialisation; of their own specialist roles within their schools; and their relations with other curriculum specialists. It sought to do this in three ways:

- through an examination of the curriculum organisation of twenty-two primary schools;
- through an examination of the curriculum as structured, planned and delivered, by sixty-three teachers in their primary classrooms, across the infant and junior age-range;
- and through an examination of the Head Teachers and classroom teachers' observed and expressed curriculum roles and identities.

Interviews were conducted with all head teachers and class teachers in the sample (a total of 85), and the teachers' classrooms observed in action. An equal number of Reception, Year 2, Year 3 and Year 6 classes were studied (see Footnote 1) in order to gauge any differences between curriculum organisation and practice in Key Stage 1 and Key Stage 2. Interviews and observation as research tools, together with examination of school/class curriculum documents, were used in preference to questionnaires because of the frequently cited gap between teachers' stated views of their curriculum practice and their actual practice. Interviews took the form of fairly open head teacher and teacher commentaries around their views on the primary curriculum and their

practice of it. Teachers and head teachers were encouraged to describe in detail their classroom/school curriculum practice and to offer reasons or explanations of 'why they did what they did'. This approach enabled teachers and head teachers to introduce ideas, thoughts or areas that were not pre-determined by the writer. Hence, it was left to them to specify what they meant by the primary curriculum, curriculum responsibility, and curriculum specialisation. The approach adopted for classroom observation was that of a non-participant observer.

Initial Findings

Simplistic characterisations of the primary curriculum as child-centred were found to be erroneous. The research data indicated a far more complex primary curriculum in practice than that suggested by the characterisation of it as child-centred. The school-based organisational features of the curriculum, and these teachers' daily curriculum practice did not fit commonly understood features of child-centredness. It had different features and guiding principles for different areas of the curriculum, different curriculum aims, clientele, and even time of day for the teaching of different subjects. No singular underlying and overriding educational code, principle, or ideology (eg. as suggested by Bernstein 1975, Walkerdine 1984/6, Alexander 1991) was found which guided or determined the curriculum practice of these teachers, as individuals or as school-based groups. Rather there emerged a fairly distinctive alternative pattern that involved different clusters of characteristics associated with both child-centredness and other models of the curriculum. This alternative pattern was consistent across both Key Stage 1 and Key Stage 2 regardless of whether children were taught in Infant or Junior only schools or in Junior Mixed Infants (combined) schools.

The School and Classroom Contexts

As with school-based curriculum planning, classroom-based planning prioritised 'basics' over the rest of the curriculum. This was evident in curriculum forecasts, timetables and routines, and in observed and claimed modes of curriculum delivery and children's activities.

Teachers called it by a variety of names - 'nitty gritties', '3Rs', 'basics' or 'bread and butter', but whatever its name, it was very much these teachers' curriculum priority, from Reception through to Year 6. 'Basics' were stated to be covered every day by almost three quarters of the teachers. They were such a priority that they were claimed, documented, and

observed to take place every morning, in well over half these teachers' classrooms, with no significant difference between the two key stages of primary education. Teacher statements regarding the separation of 'basics' and the 'Orest', for teaching 'basics' every day, and preferably first thing in the morning, were clearly supported by classroom observations. They were treated as separate subjects in most classrooms, and prioritised in terms of time allowed and the requirements made of pupils.

Less than a quarter of these teachers planned their teaching on the basis of doing different subjects at the same time (ie; an integrated day) although there was some variety and group work. "I nearly always have them working, perhaps in different groups, on different aspects of the same subjects. But nearly always the same subject at the same time.. I found it better for my own organisation." (Year 6, 10-11yrs, JMI)

Pupil choice of activity was a rare and minor feature of teachers' curriculum delivery in these schools. The curriculum was very much teacher-structured and teacher-directed, and therefore not subject to significant areas of pupil choice. This was confirmed by observation, and was consistent across both key stages: "If I feel they have worked sufficiently they do get what we call a choosing time, when they can choose the play house, and the large bricks. I tend to sort of dangle it in front of them I suppose. I mean they can choose from those activities once they've got their basic work done. But I'm afraid that does come first." (Reception, 4-5yrs, JMI)

"They haven't had any choices to make as regards project or topic work. It's all very structured... I think they're too young ... We have choice in art. They can choose what they want to do in the picture." (Year 3, 7-8yrs, Junior)

Whilst the atmosphere of most classrooms observed was pleasant and industrious, teacher power, direction, and authority regarding curriculum delivery, including its content, was in most cases overtly visible to both children and observer; it was not based upon democratic relations between teacher and taught, even in a notional sense. Nor was it claimed to be so by class teachers. "I'm inclined to lead the horse to water and pour the water down its throat. I'm less inclined but I know I should, to let them do the thinking. And I'm unsure how to set up situations where they're not wasting an awful lot of time going down wrong alleys. I know people say that time is valuable but I think not, because given the amount of time available to us, and the things we've got to do, we want to cut down going down

dead alleys as much as possible.” (Year 3, JMI)

When talking about choice, these teachers emphasised that, where it existed at all, it was structured rather than free choice, and then predominantly only when teacher-directed work has been satisfactorily completed: “We don’t give them complete free choice. They’re not free to do as they please. They are required to do what we tell them to do a large percentage of the time.” (Reception, 4-5yrs, JMI)

Regarding developmental psychology, the data suggested that these heads and teachers were not particularly supportive of the idea that children’s learning occurs naturally, developmentally. Even where some teachers agreed that it might, in ideal terms, no teacher suggested that as a classroom strategy. “I only go along with Piaget so far. I don’t agree with all this readiness business. I think I’m more a Bruner person. You know, you can teach anything to a child as long as it’s at their level.” (Year 2, 6-7yrs, Infant)

“I think they would learn anyway. But I think they learn an awful lot more with direction.” (Year 6, 10-11yrs, JMI)

An illustrative cameo

The head of a junior school claimed he sought to influence and change classroom practice in his school through the use of highly structured curriculum guidelines and other formal organisational features, towards what could be described as a ‘Mixed Model’ approach to curriculum practice, and away from traditional separate subject teaching (streaming by ability was practised in his school until 1983). His school’s curriculum guidelines were in two parts: ‘basics’, which meant structured schemes of work for mathematics and language/English, and ‘the rest’, under the heading of environmental education. The latter covered the other traditional subject areas of the curriculum (e.g. science, geography, history, RE, PSE), through the progressive in-depth study, over four years, of the topic ‘Our Town’. This topic was designed to link to and build on children’s background knowledge and experience. He developed the guidelines partly to overcome the practices of older established members of staff, whom he had ‘inherited’ on appointment six years previously, and who could not or would not change their teaching approach from what he saw as a formal chalk and talk’ one, with desks in rows facing the blackboard, to mixed ability teaching and grouped desks. He had imposed the necessary organisational/physical changes (eg. mixed ability classes), and encouraged others.

It is interesting to note that this Head teacher, together with others, had imposed particular forms of curriculum organisation, and guidelines on content, on teachers, in order to inhibit their use of didactic, ability-based teaching methods and to move them towards a somewhat more child-centred approach that incorporated some integration of subjects, mixed ability grouping and the valuing of children’s background knowledge and experience. But prioritisation of ‘basics’ remained.

Head Teacher’s Appointment Priorities

In regard to staff appointments to his school, he stated: “A good class teacher is what I want. The school did and still does need a music specialist. It was stated in adverts for three new appointments but from those who applied I appointed good classroom teachers and not a music specialist amongst them. I’d rather appoint a good classroom teacher than a mediocre class teacher in order to get a music specialist. I’d like a balance of (subject) specialists on my staff but it’s not the main priority.” (Head Teacher, Junior)

He was not alone in this view. Eight of the nine heads who explicitly commented indicated that appointing a good generalist class teacher was their main concern. “I think if I appointed somebody who’s fantastic at science but only in science, it wouldn’t really be good enough, would it? Well, I don’t think it would ... I’d appoint a good classroom teacher and then try to help the teacher develop, by going on courses...” (Head Teacher, Infant)

“I think much more important is to try and obtain people who are going to relate well to children, understand children’s needs, and how children learn. You can be a brilliant mathematician and can’t teach a thing.” (Head Teacher, JMI)

Head teacher’s appointment priorities for new staff clearly indicated a preference for teachers with expertise in the teaching and learning of young children, generalist class teaching and breadth of curriculum coverage (see Footnote 2). This, I would argue, clearly indicates an area of primary teacher specialism that is rarely acknowledged as such by both educationalists and politicians alike. For no apparent reason, other than convention, teacher specialism is primarily thought of in terms of subject specialism (Alexander et al 1992b). Such a definition undermines the professional work and status of primary teachers whose key areas of special expertise do not fit comfortably under a traditional subject heading.

Teachers’ Curriculum Roles and Identities

Initial teaching appointments were based on being

a good generalist class teacher, and virtually all full-time teachers had sole responsibility for their class of children. In addition almost all teachers in the sample also carried a cross-school curriculum leadership role. The majority of these roles had a traditional subject label, indicating a subject base to curriculum management, organisation and planning, and confirming the apparent priority given to maths, language and science in these schools.

Areas assigned for curriculum leadership				
Nat. Curric./RE		Other		Age
maths	15	special	8	H. of Inf. 7
science	14	computer	8	H. of Jn. 1
language	13	env.stud/topic	6	H. of Lower Jn 1
music	7	INSET	6	
games/PE	4	audio vis.aids	2	
RE	2	equal opps.	1	
art	2	display	1	
history	2	school journeys	1	

(NB: there were no designated curriculum leaders for geography or technology within this sample at this time, although aspects of geography eg. the local environment were included in the responsibilities of Environmental Studies curriculum leaders)

Whilst the majority of posts of responsibility were labelled with a separate subject heading, there were also a considerable number of ‘other’ areas covered. Fifty-nine posts were held for traditional subjects, with the ‘basics’ of science, language and maths occurring most frequently. Forty-two posts covered other areas’, twenty-five of which might be described as child-centred/Plowden type curriculum specialisms (ie; environmental education/topic, special needs, equal opportunities, display and age-range posts). Nevertheless, the priority for cross-school curriculum leadership was clearly ‘basics’.

Generalist class teacher roles were combined with predominantly subject-based curriculum leadership in these schools, by teachers who were primarily appointed because of their class teacher rather than subject expertise.

Leadership roles normally took the form of organising resources and co-ordinating the views and curricular practices of others. These teachers generally advised others and shared their area or subject expertise through discussion and staff meetings. Head Teachers also saw them as formal mechanisms for staff development, through team-teaching, working alongside class teachers or giving demonstration lessons. One head stated of her maths leader: “She has actually spent some time working in each class, with groups of children. So the teacher

can actually see her working, and can gain from her experience and influence. She goes on courses and things, and to disseminate it throughout the school we thought it best if she went into the actual classroom, alongside the teacher.” (Head Teacher, Infant)

Many heads wanted curriculum leaders to visit other classes whilst they were ‘in action’, and to work alongside other class teachers, although this was difficult to organise given the lack of non-contact (non-teaching) time for class teachers with a leadership responsibility during the school day.

Primary Teachers as Specialists

When talking about their roles as primary teachers almost the whole sample described themselves as generalists. When asked specifically if they thought primary teachers are specialists, and if so what in, most said no, although some teachers related specialism to generalism and said it involves coping with everything: “I think teachers are specialists in absolutely everything. Don’t you have to be? ... You’ve got to know a little about everything. And what you don’t know, if a child comes to you with a question you’ve jolly well got to go home and find out.” (Reception, 4-5yrs, JM I)

“I wouldn’t say they are specialists, but I think they’re very special ... if children are deadened in education in their early formative years, if they haven’t developed a joy of reading, a joy of finding out, at 11 years old, 12, 13, you’re not going to get that back, that joy, that enthusiasmÓ. (Year 2, 6-7years, JMI)

The apparent convention, that a specialist teacher is a subject specialist, clearly permeated the views of these teachers. However, their comments, and my observations of their practice, indicates that they possess a specialism but that it is of a different kind ie; in the teaching and learning of young children and breadth of curriculum coverage. It is simply not recognised as such.

Subject specialism is also an important part of their role as primary teachers, through being cross-school curriculum leaders. When asked, most teachers could identify a subject in which they could claim specialist knowledge, either from their initial training or subsequent INSET courses. However, they viewed subject specialism as predominantly secondary to, and following from, their expertise in generalist class teaching.

Summary of Initial Findings

The data generated from this research, some of which is presented here, clearly demonstrates that in

these schools the whole curriculum was predominantly delivered by class teachers, often under a topic heading, to mixed-ability classes, whose pupils worked as individuals; but, it was also predominantly planned using a traditional list of subject headings, was delivered primarily in 'single subject-focus' teaching sessions (with very little integration), with overt teacher-direction and control, and was largely undifferentiated according to individual pupil interest or need. Class teachers tended to treat different areas of the curriculum differently i.e. in the form of curriculum planning and delivery of 'basics' and 'the rest' of the curriculum; 'basics' were effectively given priority in terms of aims, time allocated and time of day taught. These teachers also had two curriculum specialisms and roles, that of generalist class teaching and cross-school curriculum leadership.

Adherence then, to a particular model of curriculum practice, such as child-centredness, was not typical of these teachers in these schools and classrooms. The complexity of the curriculum found in most of these schools and classrooms went significantly beyond questions regarding the degree of adherence to or emphasis on child-centredness.

Conclusion

It is difficult to gauge how much subject-centred teaching has increased as a result of the introduction of the National Curriculum in England and Wales, although research continues in this area. Clearly it has not been demonstrated to have increased sufficiently in the mind of Her Majesty's Inspector of Schools, Mr. Chris Woodhead (TES 1995), who so recently castigated primary teachers for, what he believes to be, their 'resistance to change' and their 'commitment to particular beliefs about the purposes and conduct of education' ie; their adherence to progressive education.

What this research clearly demonstrates is that the primary curriculum, at least in these schools, was far more subject-focused and less child-centred than had previously been thought, and that such patterns of curriculum organisation and delivery were clearly in place at the time the National Curriculum was being introduced in primary schools. The concern, for example, with subjects (especially basics) and overt teacher direction of children's activities did not result from the introduction of the National Curriculum although they may have become more widespread as a result.

The 'Mixed Model' of the curriculum in practice results, in part at least, from external, wider societal influences. The constraints and influences of the

wider social context are clearly present in the definition given by the teachers of themselves, as non-specialists, because they are generalists first and foremost (but, I would argue, experts in the teaching and learning of young children and breadth of curriculum coverage). If that is how they are defined by society in general it is not surprising if that is how they perceived and defined themselves. For these primary teachers subject-specialism was secondary. As the predominantly accepted delineation of a curriculum specialism it was not a high status identity that they felt they could claim for themselves. However, they should!

For credibility amongst colleagues, and, as demonstrated, for initial teacher appointment, head teachers said candidates had to be good, generalist class teachers (indicative of child-centredness). Yet we know that males, who teach older primary children and who are more likely to have a science/maths/IT subject specialism, tend to take precedence for career advancement and the holding of senior management positions (DES/NUT 1990, Alexander 1991, Thornton 1996 forthcoming, also see Footnote 2). The criteria related to career advancement are clearly permeated by wider social power/status issues relating to gender, age-range taught and particular, individual, subject affiliations and thus further reflect the constraints and influences of the wider social context on primary curriculum practice. Gendered constraints and influences certainly pre-date the National Curriculum.

Primary teachers have some control over how they interpret and respond to changes in their working environment, even ones of such magnitude as the National Curriculum. They also have authority over their pupils. Primary teachers thus have some degree of power regarding how they perform their curriculum duties and in relation to their pupils. However their power and status in relation to secondary school and higher education teachers appears to be low. This may be due to their perceived lack of a subject specialism, and because teaching young children has historically carried low status, likened to 'mothering' by both educational researchers and a recent Secretary of State for Education in his attempts to create a 'mums army' of primary teachers with limited education and training.

Clearly primary curriculum practice is socially embedded. It does not exist in a vacuum, in an idealised educational world, divorced from its social location. Whilst not pre-determined or simplistically mirroring wider society, the primary curriculum does reflect in some ways those wider social pressures, tensions and conflicts. Primary teachers have some

measure of autonomy regarding the curriculum, but they are not free to do as they please in their classrooms; they are themselves socially located, and the curriculum is constrained by formalised political demands, and formal and informal social expectations eg. regarding the teaching of basic literacy and numeracy skills to young children.

The 'Mixed Model' of curriculum practice also indicates a lack of societal consensus about the aims and purposes of education, and the means by which to achieve them. The resultant curriculum patterns, as identified by this research, could be viewed as a selective and flexible response by primary teachers to diverse social pressures and constraints. It should not be surprising that it varies significantly from the idealised model of child-centredness it is often characterised to be. This variance, and the underlying reasons for it, must be recognised if we are to move towards a consensus about the aims and purposes of primary education and to enable all children to develop to their full potential.

As a teacher in the sample noted: "The problem is fitting everything into a single day, or week, or term ... And everyone wants us to be everything to everybody. Now we're never going to do that." (Year 6, 10-11yrs, JM1)

Footnote 1

Sixty-three classes were observed and their teachers interviewed out of an intended sample of sixty-eight. The five missing classes are accounted for by the practice of vertical grouping in a limited number of schools. This resulted in five teacher interviews and classroom observations covering more than one age group ie; three teachers taught vertically grouped infant classes covering both reception and year 2; two teachers taught vertically grouped year 2 and year 3 classes.

Footnote 2

The data also suggested that, contrary to Head teacher's appointment priorities, primary teacher promotion may relate more to subject specialism, teacher gender and the age of pupils taught, thus supporting Alexander's findings (1991).

The relationship between gender and subject specialism, as it emerged from this research, is explored more fully in, "Subject Specialism, Gender and Status: The Example of Primary School Mathematics", *Education 3 - 13*, Spring 1996 (forthcoming). Briefly, the sample was chosen according to age-range taught (Reception, Year2, Year3, Year6 plus Head teacher) rather than gender.

However it emerged that:

Deputy Head teachers more frequently taught Year 6 than any other age-range.

Year 6 teachers were more likely to co-ordinate mathematics or science than teachers of other age-ranges.

Year 6 teachers were more likely to be male.

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Round the World - WEF Section News

Rosemary Crommelin

Headquarters

As it is now some months since the London conference, it is interesting to look back and view it in perspective. Its inspiration was the marking of 50 years of the United Nations and this, together with our own title "Education and the Renewal of Hope" was the recurring theme throughout the week of lectures, presentations and discussions.

It was an extra conference, sandwiched between the two biennials- in Japan in 1994, and Malaysia next year- and so, understandably, the numbers were perhaps not as high as at most WEF conferences; but nevertheless it achieved a high degree of thought-provoking discussions, a variety of approach, and a general atmosphere of informality and friendliness. The setting, on the attractive Froebel campus in south-west London with its lovely, extensive gardens, was a much appreciated bonus.

There was an enthusiastic reception for Professor Sir William Taylor's keynote lecture on the opening day. He took for his subject the conference theme, "Education and the Renewal of Hope" and from his thoughtful yet optimistic words the conference took shape; there were questions to follow, then discussion groups later in the morning.

The keynote lectures, on succeeding days- Professor Tyrol Burgess on "Values: the Individual, the School and Society" and James Porter on "The Dance of the Future: Education and nationalism"- provided an inspiring beginning to the Thursday and Friday of the conference-week. The days progressed with a variety of

discussion groups, presentations and lectures: the Korean Section's presentation by Dr Soon Jeong Hong, Dr Sukran Choi and Dr Eunsoo Shin on a "Peace Education Program Model in Korea: A Cultural Ecological Approach"; Dr Hirochi Iwama's (Japan) presentation on "The Spirit of UNESCO's Constitution as a Clue to Global Education"; David Peaty (resident in Japan) on "Global issues in English as a Foreign Language"; Robert Crane (UK) on "The Creation of a Better Future" and Dr Esther Lucas's (Israel) reminiscences of her work at the UN Preparatory Commission in London 1945-6.

Later in the week Professor Lea Dasberg, a guest of the Dutch section, lectured on "Different Cultures: One World"; the Dutch Section, together with a group of young students from Kenya, gave a "Presentation of Working Together", followed by a workshop and discussion session; Dr Sneh Shah gave a presentation on "The Plight of Refugee Children", and chaired the discussion which followed, and Professor Diane Montgomery spoke on "Renewal: Changing Teaching for Learning"

From Australia we were delighted to receive art work and videos, brought to us by Geoff Haward, which made excellent contribution to the programme: a selection of student art work from New South Wales primary and secondary schools; some early childhood art work from Scotsdale Infants School, Tasmania; a video "Thinking Through Play from Queensland's Centre for Applied Studies in Early Childhood,

Queensland University of Technology, and a video "Peer Mediation at Ascot Park School" from South Australia.

A special message of greetings and good wishes for the conference from Dhruba Bahadur Shreshta of the Nepal Section was greatly appreciated.

Wednesday was spent in central London, at Westminster, with a special day to celebrate "UN50". Under the sponsorship of Baroness Flather, conference members were taken on a tour of the Houses of Parliament, and this was followed by a buffet-luncheon in the Cholmondeley Room and on the Terrace of the House of Lords. It was a lovely, warm, sunny July day, and the Thames and Palace of Westminster were seen at their best.

The afternoon celebration was held in the lecture room at Westminster Central Hall- just across Parliament Square- under the same room as the first meeting of the general Assembly of the United Nations, in January/February 1946. Before entering the building we paused at the plaque on the outside wall, which commemorates the UN meeting.

The programme, introduced by Christine Wykes, Chairman of WEF, alternated between speakers and presentations. Baroness Flather, who had greeted everyone personally at the reception, opened the afternoon meeting, welcoming delegates, then speaking of the United Nations. Other speakers included Tyrrell Burgess, Dr (Mrs) Jasbir Singh of the Commonwealth Secretariat, Mr Surur Hoda, Secretary General of the Gandhi Foundation, Sue Errington on

behalf of One World Week - "Growing Hope", and James Porter CBE, the Acting President of WEF, who brought the celebration to a close.

Presentations were given by Rosey Simonds of Peace Child International, who spoke on "Empowering children to get involved", through the United Nations, in uniting young people around the world; and Mrs Kathryn Solly, Deputy Headteacher of Norcot Nursery School, Reading, who spoke on "Albania: Land of Contrasts". She told of the links established between her school and a nursery school in Tirana through interchange of drawings and paintings, letters and photographs, plus aid through the Reading-based charity "Feed the Children", then her recent visit to the Tirana nursery school on a fortnight's teacher placement, and the visits to Norcot school by the Albanian Ambassador, his Consul and their wives. A group of small children from Norcot endeared themselves to the audience by telling, with very little prompting, of the links with their friends in Albania.

Mrs Jacqueline Robinson of St Martin's School, Hutton, Brentwood, Essex, spoke of the school's Mozambique Week activities and aims and introduced a programme of African Dance given by pupils from the school; and the Dutch Section of WEF gave a Netherlands/Kenya presentation, "United People", with Faith Kairo, Margaret Wairim, Naomi van Stapele and Saul van Stapele.

In the course of the programme were two excellent performances by the Surrey Youth Choir, with conductors Martin Riddy and Linda Sprague, and pianist Gill Mander.

Summing up at the October meeting in London, the Guiding Committee agreed it had been a very happy, friendly conference,

with much serious discussion and excellent lectures. The most pleasing aspect, they agreed, was the wide spread of international representation: nearly all Sections were represented, the Korean delegation being particularly strong. The international aspect was further enhanced when a choir from Fr. Naselli's group of Italian students (staying at Froebel for their summer language course) treated the conference to a number of "Songs for St Cecilia" prior to Thursday's opening lecture.

August 1996

We look forward now to the next biennial meeting, the 39th International Conference of the World Education Fellowship.

The dates are August 6-10; the location the Santubong Kuching Resort, Sarawak, Malaysia; the theme "Education and the Environment: towards equitable and sustainable development"; the organisers the World Education Fellowship and Unimas (the University of Malaysia in Sarawak); the cost: conference fee for international participant US\$300, accompanying spouse of international participant US\$100, hotel room double-bed RM100, and single RM100 (rate of exchange: US\$ approx. RM2.50, pound sterling approx. RM3.80). Enquiries to Prof. Ghazally Ismail, Deputy Vice-chancellor, Universiti Malaysia Sarawak (Unimas), 94300 Kota Samarhan, Sarawak, Malaysia; or Professor John Stephenson, World Education Fellowship, 20 Queen Square, Leeds LS2 8AF, or further information from Headquarters.

Germany

Prof. Hermann Röhrs has written of recent developments in the German-speaking Section, and of particular interest in the impact of German re-unification which has

broadened the activity of the Section. During the communist era the Fellowship was prohibited in East Germany so now the opportunity has been welcomed to establish new contacts and plan ways of co-operation.

The first official conference to take place in the former GDR was held near Weimar in September 1993, with the theme "Co-operative Self-Qualification - a task for school, industry and commerce". By paying close attention to the experiences gathered in all three spheres and by involving experts from each area, a meaningful dialogue between school, industry and commerce was achieved so that the central concern of the conference could be addressed, that is, to work together and learn from each other in such a way that both professional and personal qualifications can profit. The inclusion of competent representatives from industry and commerce led to a realistic balance between the practical and the academic approach to the world of work.

The link between East and West was further strengthened a year later by the conference organised by the University of Leipzig in September/October 1994, with the theme "Being a Teacher/Educators/Headteacher Today - between orientation courses and burnout". In June this year the topic at Heidelberg was "Discussing Educational Measures in School and in the Family"; next year's conference (to which I referred in the last issue) will be held at Stams in the Tyrol, with the appropriate title "Building Bridges".

South Australia

Following the suggestion made at the Connecticut Conference that Sections might perhaps base some of their programmes in relationship to the subject of the next biennial

conference, the South Australian Section recently organised a successful "Hypothetical" on the 1996 Conference theme. Participants included environmentalists, farmers, members of the business community, educators and lecturers on Eco-tourism. It proved a very successful evening and was captured on video which will be brought to the conference as part of South Australia's contribution.

A report on the Section's activities last year reflects a committed involvement in local and wider matters, with five public meetings during the year and Committee meetings at a member's house. At the public meetings the subjects included:

(i) Elizabeth Mansutti, author, playwright, TV scriptwriter and producer on "TV: the Insidious

Teaching Tool"; (ii) Values into Practice Workshop: Pam Murray White on "Operation Flinders" for first-time offenders, and Wayne Dobbins on "New Country, New Life" a programme for Khymer people becoming involved in the education of their children; (iii) "Reconciliation", the issue discussed by a group of Aboriginal and South African speakers; (iv) "What do we do with the boys?" Mick Piotto led the discussion following a workshop at Junior Primary, Primary and High School levels; (v) "Achieving Peak Performance": author and consultant Susan Pix offered many ideas to the audience.

Meetings this year have been organised to maintain interest and impetus of WEF in the State.

USA

Members of the Guiding Committee were delighted to hear from Cynthia Shehan and Holly Benkert during their visit to the Beijing Conference: "A long-overdue thank you for your role in making this dream of ours come true. We are here! The experience has been exhilarating, exhausting, challenging and rewarding. It takes one hour to get to the NGO site and two-and-a-half hours to get back to Beijing. We don't know if we'll get into the UN Conference as they do not have nearly enough room for all of us. It is so thrilling to be with women of all over the globe....."

We look forward to hearing more details from them later.

FOR AND ABOUT WEF MEMBERS

Reminiscences of the Preparatory Commission of the United Nations 1945-1946

Dr Esther Lucas

In 1929 while at school I had joined the League of Nations Union, so I was delighted when the Foreign Office Research Department, where I was working during the war, offered to second me to the United Nations Preparatory Commission that was due to start work in London in August 1945.

It was an exciting move just across the road from the large barracks-like room of the Old Stationery Office to the comfortable quarters of Church House where I had a room with a carpet and a proper desk of my own, in a building that could boast a restaurant and all amenities.

I was appointed Documents Officer under Waldo Chamberlin, an American Professor who had been a U.S. observer at the League of Nations. We were a small group from the Foreign Office soon augmented by personnel from the U.S. State Department. And though our job was

to produce the documents for the delegates, at the beginning we were doing all sorts of jobs connected with conference planning. When there was a rush, and that was often, we, the documents officers, helped the clerks to collate and stack the documents for distribution. At first they were only in English, later French, Spanish and Russian were added. By today's standards production was primitive. Speeches were taken down by verbatim reporters in shorthand, typed on to stencils in the typing pool and then rolled off on hand manipulated duplicating machines. Paper was thick and heavy. Distribution was made either to delegates in Church House before the sessions, or at night we would take them by limousine to the Foreign Office for distribution to the embassies.

Because there was so much work to do we worked day and night. I remember being sent off in the evening by limousine to a cafe in Victoria to fetch sandwiches for the night shift since the restaurant only operated during the day. Early in the morning the same foreign office cars would

drive round London to take us home.

The first Secretary General was Gladwyn Jebb. One of his assistants was Brian Urquart, later active dealing with Middle East problems at the UN in New York and only recently retired.

The delegates, who were only those of the Allied nations at that stage, were often foreign ministers. I particularly remember Gromyko of the USSR whom I would meet in the lift. We did not speak to each other. He was a very taciturn person. Eleanor Roosevelt, on the other hand, had a smile for everyone.

The first Security Council Meeting and the first General Assembly took place at the Central Hall Westminster. I knew the Central Hall well, having as a child attended Children's Concerts there under the baton of Malcolm Sargent. Members of the UN Secretariat drew lots to be able to attend the Security Council and Assembly as there was not enough room for everyone. I was lucky and was present on both these occasions. I can remember seeing Attlee, Bevin, Gromyko, Eleanor Roosevelt and Stettinius. There were a lot of

documents to be prepared for those days.

In March 1946 some of us were sent to Paris for the Preparatory Commission of the World Health Organisation. I was in charge of the Documents Office there and we worked closely with the people from the French Foreign Office. We lived and had our meetings in the Hotel d'Orsay next to the Quai d'Orsay Station which is now part of the Museum. The status of the Documents Officers by then had risen to the point where we were invited to diplomatic

cocktail parties. I still have invitations to the embassies of Britain, Canada and China. We also visited the USSR embassy and were entertained at the Paris Hotel de Ville.

I was due to go to New York in the summer of 1946 when the UN moved to its temporary HQ there, but by that time I had met my future husband and decided to join him in a kibbutz in Palestine. My interest in the UN has not waned and for the last fifty years I have worked for UNESCO and UNICEF and a number of NGOs, organizing international conferences

and student exchanges. At present I serve on the Israel Committee for UNICEF.

On my last visit to the UN in New York a couple of years ago I was given a copy of a handbook explaining how to write UN documents - pages of instructions regarding accurate reporting and translating into all the official languages. It was a lot simpler in the olden days!

Dr. Lucas is a long standing member of WEF GB

WEF 39th Conference on Education and The Environment: towards equitable and sustainable development, 6th-10th August 1996, Kuching, Sarawak, Malaysia. Organised by: World Education Fellowship, and Universiti Malaysia, Sarawak

Context

The publication of "Our Common Future" (United Nations report of the Brundtland Committee) in 1988 focused attention on the need and opportunities for sustainability in human management of the globe. Subsequently, the Rio Earth Summit in June 1992 produced a set of action plans for the conservation of our environment and equitable utilisation of the world's natural resources.

The best awareness programme is undoubtedly through education. By incorporating environmental aspects into formal curricula and informal educational practices, our understanding of the roles played by plants, animals, microbes, water, clean air, etc. in our daily lives, can be enhanced. In addition, awareness about conservation measures and the significance of sustainable approaches in development, can be increased. Education can also help the wider international community to understand and address issues of equity in global resource management.

Objectives of the Conference

To examine the various aspects related to environmental education, the WEF in collaboration with UNIMAS, is organising this conference. The main objectives of the conference are to:

- increase participants' awareness of the role education can play in promoting wider understanding of the environment;
- explore some current research on the complex balances within the natural environment;
- learn of experience of how schools, colleges, universities and other organisations are using education to promote understanding of environmental issues;

- enhance understanding of the concepts of equitable and sustainable development;
- increase awareness of the issues of equity in the management of global resources.

The Venue

The conference will be held at the Santubong Resort, Kuching, Sarawak, Malaysia; from 6th to 10th August 1996. Accommodation will be available at cost considered low by international standards. This is a rare opportunity for international participants to visit an area of outstanding biodiversity and rapid economic growth.

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Learners of the World: a renewal of hope

Professor John Stephenson

The WEF Philosophy

Anticipating our next international conference in Malaysia on Education for the Environment, I am reminded of the occasion when the WEF met in Bombay in 1986. We arrived in the early hours of the morning, had some rest and attended the opening ceremony later that day. Imagine my consternation to discover that I was included in the programme the following morning to talk about Education for the Environment, a subject outside my specialism. What I said on that occasion is still relevant to me today.

I told the 500 mainly Indian delegates that I lived in a western city and like many others at that time (it has changed since then, I am glad to say), had little daily direct confrontation with environmental issues. But, I said, I had a garden and in that garden I had a cherry tree. That cherry tree was blooming with blossom in the spring, full of fruit in the summer, and golden with glory in the autumn,. It was a magnificent tree.

In that tree lived a songbird. The songbird filled our days with melody. It was a magnificent songbird. The bird and the tree contributed to a beautiful garden.

The bird depended upon the tree for shelter and food. The tree depended upon the bird for the distribution of its seed. The better the songbird was at being a songbird, the better it was for the tree. The better the tree was at being a tree, the better it was for the songbird. This cameo of the richness of the interdependence of nature was meaningful to me in two important ways:

- We have much to gain from diversity, and we must learn about and celebrate those things which make us different. We have little to learn from people who are replicas of ourselves; we have more to learn from those who survive and flourish in different ways.

- If this interdependence is so important, our collective task, as citizens and teachers, is to nurture our individuality, helping all participants to explore and realise their potential.

Individuality within community - that for me is what the WEF is all about - a celebration and nurturing of the wonderful diversity in human being and the universality of its spirit.

We must understand the implications of that basic creed. It is much more, for instance, than visiting a Malaysian longhouse and celebrating a different way of living - a form of living in which the village chief is chief because at the age of 42 he is the oldest in the village. It is more than acceptance of what is. It is

helping the dwellers to become, to explore and realise their potential as we in turn seek to realise our own. And it means having the skill, knowledge and compassion to confront the issue of possible deforestation that may arise. But that is the subject of a whole conference next year. For the present debate, as educators, we must find ways of giving all peoples the opportunities and support to develop the skills of learning which will enable them to realise their own potential.

Information and technological revolution

The information and technological revolutions are well upon us. People attending HEC and other conferences no longer exchange telephone numbers; they swap EMail addresses. (Here is my EMail address: JStephenson@eworld.com). Virtual journals and books are almost instantly available to anyone with a computer which has a modem and the right software.

If you are part of a university, dedicated lines such as the Joint Academic Network (JANET) can be free to the user. But a laptop computer will do just as well in your own home or, if you are travelling, from your hotel room. Just plug your equipment into your telephone point and for the price of a local phone call and the rental of a mailbox you can connect to libraries, specialist discussion groups and a wide range of other services and information. You are part of 'the net' with membership of the world-wide virtual community of scholars.

Let me give you some examples of how it can work: a) JS, Len Cairns, Stewart Hase; b) Family law group; c) The hot room; d) The Elida Gibbs assembly line

The implications for university research activity are clear. Specialist discussion groups can share ideas, findings and common concerns. Reports can be instantly circulated. Participants in joint research projects can exchange data with antipodean colleagues as easily as if they were in the same university department. Research faculties can cross institutional and international boundaries.

The implications for university teaching are no less staggering. Lectures, reading assignments, bibliographies, articles and self-diagnosis materials which are normally restricted to people who attend the university campus can be just as easily made available to anyone in the world with access to electricity and a telephone. Assignment reports and essays can be submitted instantly to tutors who can amend, correct and comment at times which are convenient to their busy schedule. The availability of the tutor's electronic mailbox, unlike the tutor's voice contact, is constant; replies can be returned at

any time. With audio and video attachments, students and tutors can view and discuss the same piece of work, each one in turn amending what is written or drawn. Self and other assessments can be conducted in real-time, when the learner is ready.

The implications for access and continuing professional development are considerable. The university can be brought to the community, anywhere. It is technically possible for any learner, whether on a remote island of Indonesia or on a factory assembly line in Britain to have easy access to the international virtual university, trawling material from different parts of the world and receiving guidance from a specialist tutor. Already some institutions issue their more remote students with the necessary hardware; others have provided on-line services to student residences.

So much for the hype. There are real problems - the reliability of equipment and networking software, information overload (for the user, not the system), unsolicited mail, signposting and security devices in institutions to stop people dialling out and more particularly to stop people dialling in. And what about copyright of publications and course materials?

But there are greater issues.

1 What about the quality and relevance of the learning which takes place and the changing role of teachers?

2 Will the politicians keep out of it?

3 What are the implications for WEF?

1.- The quality and relevance of learning and roles for teachers

At one level we should welcome these new developments. By replacing the teacher as the gatekeeper of all knowledge with a learner-controlled terminal connected to 'the net', there are real opportunities for students to explore their own interests, to work at times and a pace which suit their circumstances and to seek information relevant to their own development. Teachers too can be released from spending most of their student contact time orally transmitting information in routine lectures which only cover a small proportion of the subject and which students only partially receive. Moreover, graduates of the virtual university will have keyboard skills and the facility for updating their professional education once in work.

But if the information and technological revolution are to achieve their potential, we need a third and related revolution, a learning revolution. Students need opportunities to make realistic assessments of their current abilities, to talk through their aspirations, to identify the knowledge, skills and

experiences they will need, to monitor how well they are doing and to demonstrate their achievements. They need the opportunity to meet with other learners to exchange ideas and experiences, to develop other communication skills and to receive peer support for the risks they are taking in building their own programmes.

Teachers' time released from routine oral delivery is available for dialogue with students about their learning. Assignments, placements and other learning experiences can be planned to help students explore their abilities, interests and needs. Feedback can help students learn how to judge their own progress. Guidance can introduce students to other options and the wider context within which their specialist interests can be better understood. High level cognitive skills can be encouraged through intellectual challenge and debate, and by the application of knowledge to real problems in the community and the work-place.

By making specialist information instantly available, the Internet reduces its scarcity value. Like, air, more can be taken in as and when it is needed. If the authorities respond by switching expensive staff from the delivery of information which is available much more cheaply by other means to supporting the more productive teaching activities outlined above, we can not only make education more widely available, we can through the same action also raise the quality of student learning.

Learning sets, in which members help each other to explore their aspirations and pursue their potential, replicate my garden with its tree and bird. They provide a context for true education for a global society.

2.- Politicians

One of the great features of the net is that no-one owns it. So long as there are open access telephone lines and satellite services, the net is managed by its users. It is truly inter personal (avoiding the trappings of internationalism).

There are some regimes, even so-called progressive democracies, which would be worried by its young people talking to people from other cultures for fear of what they might describe as cultural contamination. Others would want to be more aggressive in ensuring that their own perceptions of the world dominate the information available. And some commercial and religious groupings would seek to provide information as part of their marketing strategy for particular products.

It will be easy for governments to point to abuses of the system - such as pornographic and racist

material - as an excuse to control the system. All they have to do is to ban the sale of modems, make it illegal to be connected, or more likely to control the various file-servers in their region.

We need to work to ensure that nations see the potential for good far outweighs the possibility of evil. Ironically, the large organisations may be on our side in this respect - both for the marketing of hardware and software and for the development of skills of future employees.

3.- The WEF

We need to see the net as both a challenge and an opportunity.

We must rise above our natural resistance to the unfamiliarity of the language and technology; 8 year olds are already mastering it. We may be talking about a change as significant as the introduction of printing.

We must not be deterred by the fact that in the immediate future the prospect of some poorer nations being fully plugged in are remote - for less than the annual cost of just one western teacher, whole schools can be connected to the libraries of the world.

We must not be deterred by the lack of literacy or a foreign language - the use of sound and visual material supported by interaction with specialist teachers could provide a major breakthrough in literacy programmes - and they are available 24 hours with infinite patience.

We can use the net to open world-wide discussion groups in our classrooms, with on-line exchanges like my California example, or mailbox (cheaper) exchanges of more considered materials. The WEF

could easily pioneer some examples.

But above all, there are already calls from educators anxious to learn how to make good use of the new services opening up before them. What a marvellous opportunity for the WEF to promote its vision of teacher facilitation of learner managed learning.

And there are implications for the WEF as an organisation.

- The New Era, New Horizons and other WEF publications

- Specialist networks, e.g. the arts, early childhood, assessment, etc.

- The Guiding Committee itself - Are there ways in which we can make it more international? Or, heresy, could its management be rotated around the sections?

Above all, embracing the new technology would bring the WEF to the attention of a whole new constituency we would not otherwise meet, and will present the WEF as a relevant, progressive and flexible organisation able to make some small response to the learning needs of the people's of the world.

No doubt some future researcher will find on these words and say - Oh, how foolishly optimistic or misguided they were back in 1995 to put so much faith in IT. The evidence for its potential efficacy and cost effectiveness suggests that our confidence will not be misplaced.

Dr. John Stephenson was until very recently the Chair of the Guiding Committee of WEF

Themes and contribution dates

April 1996: Assessment: The Assessor, the Assessed and the Process

Deadlines for contributions: February 7 1996

August 1996: Education for All: An Achievable Target?

Deadlines for contributions: May 1 1996

December 1996: Sustainable Development

Deadlines for contributions: September 1 1996

April 1997: Abuse and Human Dignity: The Interventionist Role of Education

Deadlines for contributions: January 7 1997

Using Controversial Television Programmes to Facilitate Practitioner Based Enquiry: 'Summerhill At 70'

Louis Murray & Brenda Lawrence

Introductory Remarks

This report summarizes the organization and character of a Day School run by the School of Educational Studies at the University of Portsmouth in the U.K. Participants in the Day School included experienced primary and secondary school teachers, nurse tutors, college lecturers and some educational administrators. Most were enrolled on B.A. (Education) and M.A. (Education) award bearing courses, often under inservice sponsorship arrangements with local education authorities in Hampshire, Dorset and the Isle of Wight.

The study, learning and educational support needs of this group were disparate. However, all participants in the Day School were united by their common interest in Practitioner Based Enquiry - small scale applied research conducted in their own occupational settings.¹ PBE as it is known, is a crucial element in distance learning provision at the University of Portsmouth. It is the preferred 'house style' for student assessment, taking fairly fixed form in the 5000 word written report. However, under PBE rules, research may also be reported (and submitted for academic credit) in non-print format. Enterprising students, including several participating in the Day School, submit edited videos, scripted audio tapes, computer programmes and so forth in place of the conventional and time-honoured written assignment. Given this fairly innovative dispensation at the University of Portsmouth, it was considered apposite to use a television programme to explore the concept of Practitioner Based Enquiry in a Day School.

Whilst the Day School constituted an innovative and novel arrangement of teaching and learning activities, posing considerable risks and challenges for methodology, especially in the matter of evaluation, it is not within the scope of the article to dwell at length on such matters. Rather the purpose of the article is to factually report the procedures for the conduct of the Day School and to allow this journal's readership the freedom to reflect on these in the knowledge of their own teaching and learning arrangements.

The Concept - The National Transmitted Television Programme as a Resource in Distance Learning

The Day School was conceived of as a campus-based, collective learning experience for students

normally engaged in distance learning modes of study.

Some 50 students participated in a series of workshops linked by a controversial television programme to mark the 70th anniversary of the founding of the famous English 'free school' of Summerhill.²

The television programme, which both explored the philosophy of A.S. Neill, the founder of Summerhill, as well as the current organization of his school, was used as a linking resource to explore the conceptual and methodological issues generated by Practitioner Based Enquiry. As most of the Day School participants were involved in small scale applied researches in their own educational institutions across the south of England, under the supervision of an autonomous Field Tutor, it was postulated that the pooling of ideas on a topic visibly and notoriously in the public domain would concentrate minds and tacitly facilitate enquiry learning at the level of the individual.

Also, university tutors responsible for organizing the Day School were, in turn, able to regard the workshops as experimental teaching, and in keeping with the spirit and ethos of PBE, treat the Day School as a data-gathering exercise in its own right. Reciprocity in teaching and learning is understood as both a staff and student obligation at the University of Portsmouth.

A Note on Visual Literacy

Visual literacy implies the recovery of meaning through pictures, visual signs, films, televisuals and sight cues. Television is a controversial medium in this regard. To say that contemporary television programmes, particularly narrative documentaries, require the audience to be 'visually literate' is to say at least two things. Firstly, that television programmes may be designed to purvey both obvious and tacit messages. Secondly, that the recognition and interpretation of alternative meanings in visual imagery can be an acquired skill.

'Summerhill at 70' certainly made demands in this regard on Day School participants. Whilst the Day School did not overtly confront the theory of visual literacy, some of the pedagogical concerns were considered. A colleague of this article's authors, Dave Allen, a tutor with considerable expertise in the field, was especially interested in raising questions about

using visual mediums for representing evidence, as opposed to written reports, in Practitioner Based Enquiries. Visual literacy, as an engaging but controversial idea therefore underpinned the questions used to direct the activities in Workshop C. Further information on the concept of visual literacy is available through the references listed at Annex 3.

Pre-Day School Preparation

Students were asked to undertake a number of activities in preparation for the Day School

- A standard letter explaining the intended use of the video Summerhill at 70 was forwarded to all participants.

- Students who had missed the national transmission of the programme were asked to preview video copies of the documentary located in 4, geographically dispersed (but conforming to student catchment areas), local authority provided teachers centres.

- Students were asked to read an abstract (see Annex 1) entitled 'Using Videos to Present - Practitioner Based Enquiries' authored by Dave Allen, a university tutor with research interests in visual literacy.

- Press releases of a provocative and controversial kind were also supplied as pre-reading.

- Finally, the workshops for the Day School were described and students were asked to think about the orientation of each of the workshops to the resource material provided by the Summerhill documentary.

Day School Organization

Four (4) workshops of 1½ hours duration were put on as parallel pairs. That is, workshops 1 + 2 were scheduled for a 9.30 am start with workshops 3 + 4 to follow at 11.15. The pattern was repeated in the afternoon and students were encouraged to participate in at least two workshops. The 'orientation' of the workshop was signposted through a title and set questions printed in the programme. These questions contained word signs and cues designed to cause the students to engage with conceptual and methodological characteristics of PBE.³

Informal 'talk spots', for those students disinclined to participate in more than one workshop were designated about the building. Print and visual stimulus material about Summerhill was prominently displayed around the 3 or 4 easy chairs and potted plants that made up a 'talk spot'.

In the event, seven people chose to take advantage

of the 'talk-spot' opportunity. The main reason given for this was the desire to discuss in depth the wider educational controversies generated by the Summerhill video. For this group, the substance of Summerhill was as important as its use as the target for a particular kind of educational research. In outcome terms, members of this group reported their appreciation of the opportunity to come together collegially, away from the 'hurly-burly' of the classroom and the constraints of school life, and to share opinions on the perennial issues of freedom and authority in education.

The workshops are described as follows:

Workshop A Information Technology and Information Retrieval

How can ERIC or other computer-based information systems be used to generate information about Summerhill? Think of your own keywords that might be used to interrogate a database such as ERIC. E.g. 'Summerhill' is an obvious word but not what happens when you use this particular word (exemplar output pages from ERIC reveal references on related but broad concepts such as 'educational leadership').

How can conventional statistical packages for microcomputers (e.g. SPSS/PC+) be used to transform qualitative data from sources such as 'Summerhill'?

Workshop B Applying Qualitative Methodologies

What does a video like 'Summerhill' tell us about the effects of the investigator on the enquiry?

How might the accounts of individual informants in the video be scrutinized for authenticity and validity?

What principles might have been used or could have been used to underpin selection of footage in this video?

How might the type of investigatory work represented by the video be set in an ethnographic research context?

Workshop C Alternative Writing Styles for Practitioner Based Enquiries

If the current video is thought to be deficient as a piece of visual reportage, what elements might be written into a planning script for an improved version of the video?

If the video is taken as evidence of a secondary data kind (e.g. a substitute for direct observation by a researcher) how might the researcher write to avoid or ameliorate the evaluative stances of the writers of the press releases?

Workshop D Dissertation Writing

What might be a suitable title for a dissertation based on 'Summerhill'?

What might a reference list for this topic look like?

What chapter structure or order of contents might be constructed for a dissertation on 'Summerhill'?

What might be included in a 250 word abstract summarizing a dissertation on 'Summerhill'?

'Wash-Up', Evaluations and Conclusions

Whilst each workshop represented a stand alone learning experience, it was considered important to conduct a concluding plenary session for two main reasons. Firstly, to summarize the connections between workshops in integrating the promise and problem of Summerhill in research-based accounts. Secondly, to conduct an evaluative exercise designed to test the collaborative and networking learning claims of PBE when exercised through a controversial television programme more likely to polarize people than unite them. The evaluation was sociologically-theorized and involved 'risky' retrospective observation (see Annex 2). That this evaluation was 'risky' was indicated by the incredulity vocally expressed by a number of the participants at the plenary session. The notion that people would be expected to engage in additional mental activity at the end of, and I quote, a "demanding day" was too much for some participants and they flatly refused to complete the proformas! Such volitional 'inactivity' was itself a judgement on these participants' understanding of the

obligations of practitioner research.

However, as the majority of participants were quick to point out, the evaluation was in a stricter measurement sense 'risky' because it relied on memory and recall. Several people also indicated that the re-interrogation of workshop processes in terms of pre-structured sociological categories was a difficult conceptual exercise. Nonetheless, some 38 completed proformas, plus verbatim reports from 8 university tutors were produced. Evaluative evidence drawn from participant responses to the evaluation proforma, plus tutor observations of proceedings throughout the Day School programme suggest the following conclusions.

- Adult learners may be both independently and collectively motivated by controversial, nationally transmitted television programmes.

- That whilst controversy can concentrate minds it can also become an end in itself causing people to miss the true point of a learning experience.

- Thus serious questions may be raised about the validity of shared learning and collaborative networking principles claimed as the essence of Practitioner Based Enquiry.

- However, television programmes designed for a mass audience can, with careful structuring, be used to convey tacit messages about more formal educational purposes.

On the basis of the outcomes described above, course member Day Schools have become a regular feature of distance learning provision at the University of Portsmouth.

Notes

1.- For an analysis of the concept of Practitioner Based Enquiry (PBE) see: L. Murray 'What is Practitioner Based Enquiry?' *British Journal of Inservice Education* 18(3) p. 191-196 1992.

2.- The programme was commissioned for, and transmitted by, Channel 4, Britain's second commercial television channel. The programme, titled *Summerhill at 70* was one of several hard hitting, socially conscious documentaries in the *Cutting Edge* series. Graphic scenes in the programme showing children apparently running wild in dormitories after midnight, teachers using expletives, and one boy apparently beheading a rabbit with a butcher's cleaver, provoked furious reviews and generally hostile public reaction following nationwide transmission in April 1992.

3.- Documents used to support the workshops included the following:

- Sample output pages from ERIC (Educational Resources Information Centre) retrieved from the CD-ROM version using the keyword 'Summerhill'. Students had immediate access to ERIC throughout the period of the Day School.

- Copies of 'Letters to the Editor' from national newspapers from readers for and against Summerhill.

- Review summaries of the documentary by nationally known television critics printed after nationwide transmission.

- An annotated but fictional abstract of a dissertation on Summerhill entitled 'Instability in Charismatic Leadership in Educational Organizations: the Case of Neill and Summerhill'.

- A general List of References on or about Summerhill containing deliberate omissions such as Neill's own biographical works. This 'spot the mistake' strategy was used to focus students on the importance of correct bibliographical procedure in research dissertation writing.

- A document showing the chapter structure of a dissertation and a checklist for assessing adequacy and meaningfulness in the specification of a research problem or question as it might be directed towards Summerhill.

Copies of these documents are available on written request from the authors. Similarly, a video of the actual proceedings of the Day School, filmed naturalistically to add to the evaluative database, is available at the cost of a 3 hour video tape.

Indeed, the convenors of the Day School and the authors of this article are of the view that the combined materials make a useful package for inservice education courses designed for adult professional educators. Anyone wishing to trial or use the materials for these purposes is welcome to contact the writers at the University of Portsmouth who will be pleased to advise on the use of the materials.

Annex 1
Extract from USING VIDEO TO PRESENT PRACTITIONER-BASED ENQUIRIES

by Dave Allen
"Snapshots aren't enough. We'd need the whole film of the trip in real time, including the unbearable heat and the music. We'd have to replay it all from end to end"

Jean Baudrillard proposes here that the only way to "rediscover the magic" of a journey across the American deserts is to replay a film of the **whole** journey in "real time" complete with the heat and music - an engaging if impossible notion but still (and allowing for all the sophistication of contemporary technology) one which would depend upon the selections of a film-maker. Video is a slightly different medium from film but one which is also inter-disciplinary (combining words, sounds and images) and dependent upon three processes of selection. The first of these is in the planning, leading to decisions about content and focus; the second in the production or recording phase, and the third in post-production (or editing). At each stage decisions are made about the appropriateness of the work in terms of its intended form - just as in educational enquiries.

Jean Baudrillard translated by Chris Turner (1988) America Verso

Annex 2
Evaluation - Through Retrospective Observation

As you are aware, it is customary to evaluate Day Schools such as this one as events in themselves. To move away from the rather stereotyped evaluative questioning that focuses, often crudely, on perceived satisfaction variables (e.g. "Did you enjoy the workshop session?") we are asking you to participate in a risky, retrospective observation exercise.

Hopefully, this will tell us something not only about the Day School, but will also provide meaningful data in terms of the nominated observation categories. The exercise will certainly test your powers of memory, perception and observation.

Please think back to one of the workshop sessions. Identify it by letter here ...

Now complete the schedule as if the workshop was still taking place.

CATEGORY HEADING	FOCUS
Verbal Interaction	Who is talking to whom?
Pattern	For how long? For what purpose?
Non-verbal Behaviour	What kinds of non-verbal behaviour are occurring? What is the meaning of this behaviour?
Style of Decision Making	Is there consensus? Is there conflict? Is there majority rule?
Functions of Groups	Are both task (instrumental) and social/emotional (expressive) functions being performed in the groups?
Types of Group	What rules emerge?
Norms (Rules)	What level of significance do they operate at - folkways - mores laws?

Write below your interpretation of the interaction pattern.

Annex 3
Additional sources of information on the concept of visual literacy.

Allen,D. (1994) "Teaching Visual Literacy - Some Reflections on the Term". Journal of Art and Design Education. 13(2).

Boughton,D. (1986) "Visual Literacy: Implications for Cultural Understanding Through Art Education". Journal of Art & Design Education. 5(1+2).

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REVIEWS

The Pedagogy of Peace as an Element in Peace Studies: a critical review and an outlook on the future by Hermann Röhrs, Peace Education Miniprints No.63 August 1994, pp29

Distributed by R and D group, 'Preparedness for Peace' School of Education, Box 23501, S-200, 45 Malmö, Sweden

The booklet opens with the statement that the contents are based on 20 years' experience in 'an International Comprehensive School in Heidelberg, expressly designed as a Peace School, and a nursery school in Mannheim'. This statement and the title led me to expect an exploration of particularly successful pedagogies within peace education illustrated by examples from the two schools mentioned in the opening statement. This is not the case. There is very little in the booklet which refers directly to classroom practice.

The text was presented as a lecture at a conference in Rome in 1994 and its style is that of an academic

paper, containing in addition an overview of research activity. Röhrs divides his presentation into three main areas - the structure of peace education, an interpretation of the pedagogy of peace and the prospects of peace education in the Third World.

The relationship between peace studies and peace education has often been seen as analogous with the relationship between, for example, development studies and development education. 'Studies' are identified by the academic pursuit of knowledge and critical analysis of the subject matter and 'education', most frequently found in schools, is characterised by methodological approaches which engage both the cognitive and affective needs of the learner. It is also characterised by action. This is implicit in much of what is said in this booklet, but is rarely made explicit.

Röhrs defines the pedagogy of peace as 'the sum of scholarly and scientific thinking on the nature of peace education and the way it should be organised.

This seems to imply that classroom practice can only be informed by scholarly and scientific thinking rather than by a mutually beneficial dialogue between those who engage in the scholarly work and those in daily contact with children and students. Action research projects can contribute greatly to our understanding of children's responses, to developing skills and values in what Röhrs defines as 'peaceability'.

In part one, Röhrs is concerned with the structure of peace education but fails to develop adequately an exploration of the variety of processes in education, particularly peace education, and leaves the reader with a view of education which is too didactic, responding only to the cognitive needs of the learner.

The statement 'The touchstone of our thinking about conflict settlement will indubitably remain the passage in the Bible in which.... Abraham proposes to his cousin Lot that they part company peaceably' (my emphasis) raises the question of who is the intended audience of this book. Many readers may not identify with Bible passages as the touchstone of thinking about conflict settlement. The gendered language and absence of any reference to feminist research on the field of peace studies jars in the mid-90's and also raises questions of audience. General statements such as 'Aggression has become the scourge of humanity the world over. Two thirds of people convicted for crimes of violence in the Federal Republic of Germany are under the age of 20', need further to be elaborated. How many of the young people were male and how many female? Does socialisation, including education, of our young people have an effect on these figures and what are the implications for peace education specifically? Peace educators cannot be cut off from other major concerns in the world - the abuse of human rights, particularly those of women of all communities, ethnic minorities and indigenous peoples. There is a serious discrepancy if each specialism remains uninformed by the work of researchers and teachers in these and other related fields.

Röhrs identifies peace education as having two key principles - the focus on the whole personality and the potential of peace education to permeate many curriculum areas. I would add that it also permeates the ethos of classroom management and as such can be implemented by all teachers, whatever their subject specialism. He is also quite clear that peace education begins at the very earliest ages of schooling and stresses the importance of involving parents and eliciting their support.

However, his claim that 'obviously this (peace

education in schools) can *only* take place in cooperation with parents, as otherwise dangerous non sequiturs may ensue'. (my emphasis) Is Röhrs implying that unless parents are in sympathy with peace education no further steps should be taken by the school? When teachers stop children calling others racist or sexist names, when they stop children hitting one another, they are already creating 'educational non sequiturs'. The underlying question to be asked is 'Are schools agents of change or the bastions of the status quo?' If it is the former then ways need to be found to engage those parents who might find the objectives of peace education not wholly in keeping with their own beliefs. A major strength of peace education is that it can be a catalyst for change. It will be an uphill struggle. As Röhrs states 'peace education is frequently in the line of critical fire'. He defines the main criticisms as 'fears of a loss of ability for self-assertion in the tough world of everyday reality, a paralysis of the will to (national) self-defence and doubts about the claims of the pedagogy of peace to the status of a truly academic discipline in its own right'. Röhrs locates these reservations historically since the Second World War and considers the national and international organisations and peace institutes whose research has informed our understanding of key issues in peace education since that time.

The final section of the booklet considers peace education in what Röhrs calls the Third World. He believes that the 'prosperity gradient between North and South will remain a permanent source of threat to world peace' and suggests 'Cooperative development aid, which will by its very nature invariably include educational aid' as a possible solution. The urgent need for wealthy countries in the North to work towards a more just economic relationship with those of the South, to stop selling the arms which fuel the armed conflicts in countries of the South and to reconsider the situation caused by International debt are scarcely alluded to. Röhrs' final recommendation to establish a peace research institute may be valid but its location in what he calls a 'typical Third World country' raises issues about how little or how much of the wealthy North is willing to listen to colleagues and partners in the South and be guided by their expressed needs.

The author seems to adhere to the belief that war is an attitudinal problem, something 'in the minds of men'. Educationalists and activists whether in the 'Third World' or in the North need an analysis that combines a psychological approach with a grasp of the economic and social pressures without which the roots of global conflict cannot be clearly understood.

Without this clear understanding what progress can be made to combat it?

**Margot Brown, Centre for Global Education,
University College of Ripon & York St. John,
York, England.**

First Steps Together: Henrietta Dombey and Margaret Meek Spencer

Trentham Books, England, 1994. ISBN 1 85856 001 2 Price: £10.95

“First Steps Together” presents examples of research carried out in a number of areas where teachers are constantly striving to develop their skills and understanding in the field of early literacy.

The areas covered range from the development of early reading and writing skills, the value of parental involvement and ideas for encouraging this, to the need to be aware of cultural differences within the classroom. It is interesting to discover that teachers in other European countries are facing the self same issues and raising the same questions as those of us working in schools in the United Kingdom.

This is an extremely ‘readable’ book. The insights provided by the research are so compelling that regardless of how relevant the subject matter is to your particular situation there is something of interest.

In each chapter, one of the main messages which comes across is the importance of establishing a partnership between parents and school. The value of explaining our teaching methods to parents, and eliciting their practical support and understanding is constantly emphasised. Whatever the focus of the research carried out, parental involvement and support are always an integral part of the process.

For anyone who has an interest in the development of early literacy, I would recommend this book as offering an interesting and thoroughly researched examination of the area.

**Diane Houten, Camp JMI School, St. Albans,
Hertfordshire, England.**

**Let’s Co-Operate, video 20 mins, sponsored by the Gandhi Foundation, 1993, £7.50 (p&p £1 50).
Let’s Play Together: 300 co-operative games for parents, teachers and children of all ages.**

Mildred Masheder Greenprint, imprint of Merlin Press Ltd, England, first published in 1989, last reprint in 1994, 120 pp, ISBN 1 85425 009 4, £6.99 (p&p£1). (Both items available from Mildred Masheder, 75 Belsize Lane, London NW3 5AU, UK).

One of the pleasures of working with young children is that it gives me the opportunity to use some beautiful resources. My particular favourites are the Montessori coloured blocks, which I could look at for hours. Mildred Masheder’s ‘Let’s co-operate’ video gave me very much the same feeling: it is beautifully produced, the colours are wonderful, and it is deeply pleasurable to watch a group of ethnically mixed children playing in such harmony.

The co-operative games are screened in action, without much explanation; the title of the game appears to refer the viewer to the book. The book is packed with ideas: many of them familiar to me as a drama teacher, but there are also many new ideas and extensions of activities. It would be extremely useful as a handbook on the shelf of any nursery or infant classrooms, as the games can mostly be played without preparation, and though it is intended for young children, most of the activities could be used with top juniors. Some of the games I have played with secondary age children and, even in the context of a drama group, with adults.

The theoretical underpinning of the games approach is accessibly outlined in the ‘Let’s Co-operate’ handbook, and extends the games approach into conflict solving, anti-racism, and fears of war and death. It also includes a valuable list of resources and further reading. The set is easy and enjoyable to use, and introduces ways of dealing with very difficult issues: it will be invaluable to most teachers.

**Jenny Plastow, St Albans S11 Project,
Language and Curriculum Support Service,
Hertfordshire, England.**

Human Rights Education Newsletter; Newsletter of the Education in Human Rights Network, an informal grouping of individuals and organisations concerned with Human Rights Education. Editor: Margot Brown, Centre for Global Education, University College of Ripon and York St John, Lord Mayor's Walk, York YO3 7EX

ERRATUM...

“Educated Repatriated Women from the Former USSR and their Careers” by Deliyianni, K., Psalti, A., Sakka, D., and Ziogou, S., (*New Era in Education*, Vol. 76 (2), pp. 34-41).

Methodology Section (p.36), next to the sentence “The questionnaire was based on two already constructed Cyprus and Germany”, add in parentheses: (Haritos-Fatouros et al., 1981; Dikaïou, 1994; Sakka 1995)

Bibliography added:

Dikaïou, M. (1994). Present Realities and Future Prospects among Greek Returners. **International Migration**, XXXII (1), 29-48.

Haritos-Fatouros, M., Singollitou, E., Maniou-Vakali, M., Mpatzia, N., Markoulis, D., Konstantinou, P. (1981). **Psychosocial Problems of Refugees in Cyprus**. Thessaloniki (in Greek).

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**WEF 39th Conference on
*Education & the Environment:
Towards Equitable and
Sustainable Development***

**6th-10th August 1996,
Kuching, Sarawak, Malaysia.**

**Organised by:
World Education Fellowship,
&
Universiti Malaysia, Sarawak**

Context

The publication of "Our Common Future" (United Nations report of the Brundtland Committee) in 1988 focused attention on the need and opportunities for sustainability in human management of the globe. Subsequently, the Rio Earth Summit in June 1992 produced a set of action plans for the conservation of our environment and equitable utilisation of the world's natural resources.

The best awareness programme is undoubtedly through education. By incorporating environmental aspects into formal curricula and informal educational practices, our understanding of the roles played by plants, animals, microbes, water, clean air, etc. in our daily lives, can be enhanced. In addition, awareness about conservation measures and the significance of sustainable approaches in development, can be increased. Education can also help the wider international community to understand and address issues of equity in global resource management.

Objectives of the Conference

To examine the various aspects related to environmental education, the WEF in collaboration with UNIMAS, is organising this conference. The main objectives of the conference are to:

- increase participants' awareness of the role education can play in promoting wider understanding of the environment;
- explore some current research on the complex balances within the natural environment;
- learn of experience of how schools, colleges, universities and other organisations are using education to promote understanding of environmental issues;
- enhance understanding of the concepts of equitable and sustainable development;
- increase awareness of the issues of equity in the management of global resources.

The Venue

The conference will be held at the Santubong Resort, Kuching, Sarawak, Malaysia; from 6th to 10th August 1996. Accommodation will be available at cost considered low by international standards. This is a rare opportunity for international participants to visit an area of outstanding bio-diversity and rapid economic growth.

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Box 1214, Launceston, Tasmania 7250

German Federal Republic — *Forum Pädagogik* -
Zeitschrift für pädagogische Modelle und soziale problemen
(in German)
Editor: Prof. Dr. Ernest Meyer
Schlittweg 34, D-6905 Schriesheim

Great Britain — *WEF (GB) Newsletter*
Editor: Reg Richardson
1 Darrel Close, Chelmsford, Essex, CM1 4EL

Holland — *Vernieuwing (in Dutch)*
Editor: Johannes Odé
c/o van Merlenstraat 104, den Haag, 2518TJ

Japan — *New World of Education*
(in Japanese)
Chief Editor: Mr Kazuyoshi Aisawa
Editor: Zenji Nakamori
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Sri Lanka — *National Education Society of Sri Lanka*
Editor: Dr. (Mrs.) Chandra Gunawardena
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USA — *USA Section News*
Editor: Dr. Patricia Vann
11 Yellow Yellow Circle
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NEW ERA IN EDUCATION is the termly journal of the **World Education Fellowship (WEF)**. The Fellowship is an international association with sections and representatives in more than twenty countries, which has played a continuing role in promoting the progress of educational ideas and practices in the twentieth century.

NATURE OF THE WEF

Founded in 1921, the World Education Fellowship is voluntary and non-partisan, and enjoys the status of a Unesco non-governmental organisation category B. It is open to educators, members of associated professions, and to all members of the public who have a common interest in education at all levels. The Fellowship meets biennially in international conferences, publishes books and pamphlets, and, through its national sections, participates in workshops, meetings and developmental projects. The Fellowship does not advocate any dogma; each member is free to put the principles indicated below into practice in ways which are best suited to the environment in which he/she is living and working.

PRINCIPLES OF THE WEF

- (a) The primary purpose of education today is to help all of us to grow as self-respecting, sensitive, confident, well-informed, competent and responsible individuals in society and in the world community.
- (b) People develop these qualities when they live in mutually supportive environments where sharing purposes and problems generates friendliness, commitment and cooperation. Schools should aim to be communities of this kind.
- (c) Learners should, as early as possible, take responsibility for the management of their own education in association with and support from others. They should be helped to achieve both local involvement and a global perspective.
- (d) High achievement is best obtained by mobilising personal motivation and creativity within a context of open access to a variety of learning opportunities.
- (e) Methods of assessment should aim to describe achievement and promote self-esteem.

ACTIVITIES OF THE WEF

In order that these principles become a reality, WEF endeavours to:

- (a) identify and pursue changes in policies and practices to meet the varying individual and shared educational needs of people of all ages.
- (b) promote greater social and economic justice and equality through achieving a high standard of education for all groups worldwide.
- (c) encourage a balance between an education which nourishes the personal growth of individuals and one which stresses the social responsibility of each to work towards improving the human and physical world environment.
- (d) foster educational contacts between all peoples including people from the third world in order to further international understanding and peace.
- (e) promote education as a lifelong process for all people, regardless of sex, race, beliefs, economic status or abilities.
- (f) encourage cooperative community involvement in clarifying educational goals and undertaking educational programmes.
- (g) secure for teachers the training, facilities, opportunities and status they need to be effective, professional people.

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